Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language: A Comprehensive Approach

Abdel Salam Abdel Khalek El-Koumy

Professor of Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Suez Canal University, Egypt

Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), USA

Electronic copy available at: http://ssrn.com/abstract=2364862

Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language: A Comprehensive Approach

First Edition published by Dar An-Nashr for Universities, Cairo, Egypt, 2002.

Second Edition published by Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), USA, 2004.

ISBN 977-316-082-3

Electronic copy available at: http://ssrn.com/abstract=2364862

Dedication

This book is dedicated to my ever caring parents, and to my wife and children, for their help and encouragement. Without their support, this work would not be a reality. I would like to express my deep appreciation to all of them.

Contents

Overview 11

Part One: Background Information

Chapter One: Major Approaches to Language Teaching and Learning

1.0 Introduction 14

1.1 The skills-based approach 14

1.2 Merits and demerits of the skills-based approach 15

1.3 The whole-language approach 17

1.4 Merits and demerits of the whole language approach 18

1.5 Conclusions 23

1.6 Principles of the comprehensive approach 24

1.7 Self-checks 28

Part Two: Integrating Subsidiary Skills with Main Language Skills

Chapter Two: Handwriting

2.0 What is handwriting? 30

2.1 The importance of handwriting 30

2.2 The teaching and learning of handwriting 32

2.3 Summary of research on handwriting instruction 34

2.4 Self-checks 36

Chapter Three: Vocabulary

3.0 What is vocabulary? 37

3.1 The importance of vocabulary 37

3.2 The teaching and learning of vocabulary 40

3.3 Summary of research on vocabulary instruction 44

3.4 Self-checks 47

Chapter Four: Spelling

4.0 What is spelling? 49

4.1 The importance of spelling 49

4.2 The teaching and learning of spelling 51

4.3 Summary of research on spelling instruction 54

4.4 Self-checks 55

Chapter Five: Grammar

5.0 What is grammar? 56

5.1 The importance of grammar 56

5.2 The teaching and learning of grammar 57

5.3 Summary of research on grammar instruction 62

5.4 Self-checks 63

Chapter Six: Pronunciation

6.0 What is pronunciation? 65
6.1 The importance of pronunciation 65
6.2 The teaching and learning of pronunciation 66
6.3 Summary of research on pronunciation instruction 70
6.4 Self-checks 71

Chapter Seven: Punctuation

7.0 What is punctuation? 72
7.1 The importance of punctuation 72
7.2 The teaching and learning of punctuation 73
7.3 Summary of research on punctuation instruction 75
7.4 Self-checks 76

Part Three: Integrating Main Language Skills with Subsidiary Skills

Chapter Eight: Listening

8.0 What is listening? 78
8.1 The importance of listening 79
8.2 The teaching and learning of listening 80
8.3 Summary of research on listening instruction 83
8.4 Self-checks 84

Chapter Nine: Speaking

9.0 What is speaking? 85
9.1 The importance of speaking 85
9.2 The teaching and learning of speaking 86
9.3 Summary of research on speaking instruction 89
9.4 Self-checks 91

Chapter Ten: Reading

10.0 What is reading? 92
10.1 The importance of reading 95
10.2 The teaching and learning of reading 95
10.3 Summary of research on reading instruction 101
10.4 Self-checks 104

Chapter Eleven: Writing

11.0 What is writing? 105
11.1 The importance of writing 106
11.2 The teaching and learning of writing 107
11.3 Summary of research on writing instruction 116
11.4 Self-checks 119

Part Four: Integrating Main Language Skills with Each Other

Chapter Twelve: Integrating Listening with Speaking

12.1 Introduction 121
12.2 Summary of research on listening-speaking relationship 124
12.3 Classroom activities for integrating listening with speaking 124
12.4 Self-checks 136

Chapter Thirteen: Integrating Reading with Writing

13.1 Introduction 137
13.2 Summary of research on reading-writing relationship 144
13.3 Classroom activities for integrating reading and writing 145
13.4 Self-checks 146

Chapter Fourteen: Integrating Speaking with Writing

15.1 Introduction 147
15.2 Summary of research on speaking-writing relationship 150

15.3 Classroom activities for integrating speaking and writing 151
15.4 Self-checks 152

Chapter Fifteen: Integrating Listening with Reading
14.1 Introduction 153
14.2 Summary of research on listening-reading relationship 156
14.3 Classroom activities for integrating listening and reading 157
14.4 Self-checks 158

Part Five: Integrating All Language Skills
Chapter Sixteen: Integrating All Language Skills
16.1 Introduction 161
16.2 Summary of research on literature-based instruction 165
16.3 Classroom activities for integrating all language skills through literature 166
16.4 Self-checks 171

Part Six: Error Correction and Assessment

Chapter Seventeen: Error Correction

17.1 Local correction 173

17.2 Global correction 174

17.3 No correction 174

17.4 A comprehensive approach to error correction 176

17.5 Summary of research on error correction 177

17.6 Self-checks 178

Chapter Eighteen: Language Assessment

18.1 Discrete point assessment 180

18.2 Global assessment 182

18.3 A comprehensive approach to language assessment 184

18.4 Self-checks 186

References 187

About the Author 228

Overview

The aim of this book is to provide a compromise between past and present theories of language teaching and learning. The book is organized into six main parts. In the first part, the author highlights the strengths and weaknesses of both the skills-based approach and the whole-language approach. He then presents a theory that emphasizes the strengths of both and shares the weaknesses of neither. Part two consists of six chapters that are devoted to the integration of subsidiary skills with main language skills. Part three consists of four chapters that focus on the integration of main language skills with subsidiary skills. Part four consists of four chapters that are devoted to integrating main language skills with each other. Part five deals with the integration of all language skills through literature. Part six consists of two chapters that address error correction and assessment.

In following the above organization, the author aims at building gradually toward whole language, and weaving error correction and assessment into the suggested approach.

In the suggested approach, teachers shift from closely-controlled to semi-controlled and finally to student-directed

activities in every lesson at the primary (beginning) and preparatory (pre-intermediate) levels. Meanwhile, they move from local to global, and finally to no error correction, and from assessing micro-skills to assessing the comprehension and production of whole texts. With the use of this procedure in teaching, error correction and assessment in every lesson, teachers integrate subsidiary skills with main language skills at the primary level and main language skills with subsidiary skills at the preparatory level.

Then, with an emphasis on student-directed activities, error-tolerance, and group-, peer- and self-assessment, teachers integrate each two main language skills at the secondary (high-intermediate) level and all language skills at the university (advanced) level.

It is hoped that this book will help researchers, teachers, and learners in the field of foreign language teaching and learning.

The Author

Abdel Salam Abdel Khalek El-Koumy

Part One

==========

Background Information

==========

Chapter One

Major Approaches to Language Teaching and Learning

1.0 Introduction

Over the last two decades or so, foreign language teaching and learning have been swayed by two major approaches: (1) the skills-based approach, sometimes referred to as the "direct," "intentional," or "formal" instructional approach, and (2) the whole-language approach, sometimes referred to as the "indirect," "incidental," or "informal" learning approach. This part of the book explores the strengths and weaknesses of these approaches, and presents a theory that emphasizes the strengths of both and shares the weaknesses of neither.

1.1 The skills-based approach

The skills-based approach drew its theoretical roots from behavioral psychology and structural linguistics. Specifically, it is based on the following principles: (1) The whole is equal to the sum of its parts; (2) There are differences between spoken and written language; (3) Oral language acquisition

precedes the development of literacy; (4) Language learning is teacher-directed and fact-oriented; and (5) Students' errors are just like 'sins' which should be eliminated at all cost.

In accordance with the above principles, advocates of the skills-based approach view language as a collection of separate skills. Each skill is divided into bits and pieces of subskills. These subskills are gradually taught in a predetermined sequence through direct explanation, modeling and repetition. Furthermore, the skill-building teacher constantly uses discrete-point tests (e.g., multiple choice, true or false, fill in the spaces) to measure the mastery of each subskill before moving to the next.

1.2 Merits and demerits of the skills-based approach

Although there are many advantages to the skills-based approach, there are also disadvantages. Advocates of the skills-based approach claim that the teaching of language as isolated skills makes language learning easier because it spares students from tackling the complexity that language entails. They also claim that this approach reduces students' errors (Shuy, 1981). They further claim that this approach is easy to implement because it provides (a) a systematic plan

that is easy to follow, and (b) graded instructional materials within and across grade levels. Nonetheless, the following weaknesses are associated with this approach: (1) There is a large discrepancy between the manner in which the language is taught and the manner in which it is actually used for communication (Norris and Hoffman, 1993; Reutzel and Hollingsworth, 1988); (2) The teaching of language as isolated skills makes it difficult because the brain cannot store bits and pieces of information for a long time (Anderson, 1984); (3) The skills-oriented programs demotivate students to study the language because what is taught to them is not relevant to their needs and interests (Acuña-Reyes, 1993); (4) The teaching of language as isolated skills stifles students' creativity; (5) The role of students is too passive and leads to underdevelopment of independent learning skills (Gipps and McGilchrist, 1999); and (6) Teachers' presentation of language as isolated skills steals both teachers' and learners' time away from productive activities (Goodman, 1986).

Despite its demerits, the skills-based approach is still the most widely used approach throughout the whole world (Ellis, 1993; Rubin, 1993). A basic reason for this is that skills-based

programs are mandated by higher authorities such as boards of education and curriculum coordinators (Anderson, 1984). Another reason is teachers' resistance to new approaches in general.

1.3 The whole-language approach

In response to recent theories in constructivist psychology and socio-psycholinguistics, the whole-language approach emerged in the latter part of the twentieth century. The evolution of this approach was, to a large extent, a revolt against the skills-based approach. The basic principles underlying this approach are the following: (1) The whole is more than the sum of its parts; (2) Language learning is a social process; (3) Learning is student-centered and process-oriented; (4) Language learning involves relating new information to prior knowledge; (5) Oral and written language are acquired simultaneously and have reciprocal effect on each other; and (6) Students' errors are signals of progress in language learning. For more detailed discussion of the whole language principles, see Freeman and Freeman (1992), Newman and Church (1990), Reutzel and Hollingsworth (1988).

In accordance with the above principles, whole-language theoreticians claim that all aspects of language interrelate and intertwine. They further claim that students should be given the opportunity to simultaneously use all language arts (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) in meaningful, functional, and cooperative activities (Carrasquillo, 1993; Farris, 1989; Farris and Kaczmarski, 1988). These activities are often centered around topics that build upon students' background knowledge (Edelsky *et al*., 1991; Freeman and Freeman, 1994). These topics are often selected by the students themselves (Pahl and Monson, 1992).

With regard to assessment, whole-language theoreticians claim that the contextualized nature of language, obtained by means of instruments such as projects, portfolios, and observations, provides a more realistic view of a student language than standardized tests.

1.4 Merits and demerits of the whole-language approach

Just like the skills-based approach, the whole-language approach has its advantages and disadvantages. Advocates of this approach assert that there are many advantages that can be attributed to this approach. One of these advantages is

that it respects students' prior knowledge which can, in turn, encourage and foster comprehension. As Vance (1990) puts it:

> **The whole language teacher brings to each student a deep respect for his or her existing prior knowledge as well as a strong desire to expand that child's wealth of knowledge and experience, and therefore his or her power to truly comprehend. Respect for each child's prior knowledge and experience provides a basis for encouraging and fostering comprehension. (p. 175)**

Another advantage of the whole-language approach is that it subsides behavior problems (Doake, 1994; Weaver, 1990, 1994). As Weaver (1990) puts it:

> **In whole language classrooms, typically there are few behavior problems, not only because students are more actively involved in learning but because students are given the opportunity to develop self-control rather than merely submit to teacher control. Instead of controlling children by their demands, whole language teachers develop learning**

> **communities characterized by mutual respect and trust—communities in which many decisions are made cooperatively, and students have numerous opportunities to make individual choices and take responsibility for their own learning. In such environments, learning flourishes and behavior problems subside. (p. 25)**

Still another advantage of the whole-language approach is that it boosts students' self-esteem (Freeman and Freeman, 1994; Weaver, 1994). As Freeman and Freeman (1994) put it:

> **When bilingual students are involved in a learner-centered curriculum, teachers focus on what their students can do rather than what they cannot do. This process builds student self-esteem and also raises teacher's expectations. (p. 247)**

Still, an additional advantage of the whole language approach is that the whole language teachers respect students' dignity and treat them with love. Goodman (1986) puts this advantage in the following way:

> **Whole language teachers need not be defensive or apologetic. They believe in kids, respect them as**

> **learners, cherish them in all their diversity, and treat them with love and dignity. That's a lot better than regarding children as empty pots that need filling, as blobs of clay that need moulding, or worse, as evil little troublemakers forever battling teachers. (p. 25)**

A final advantage of the whole-language approach is that it develops students' creativity and critical thinking. As Weaver (1990) puts it:

> **Students in whole language classrooms are thinkers and doers, not merely passive recipients of information. They learn to think critically and creatively and to process and evaluate information and ideas rather than merely to accept them. (pp. 26-27)**

However, opponents of the whole-language approach argue that this approach neglects accuracy in spite of the fact that many language teaching theoreticians and researchers (e.g., Eldredge, 1991, 1995; Goldenberg, 1991; Omaggio, 1986; Scarcella and Oxford, 1992) agree that accuracy is an essential element in the development of communication skills.

Another argument against the whole-language approach, according to two of its proponents (Freeman and Freeman, 1992), is that "it won't be easy to implement, and there will be resistance to many practices consistent with whole language" (p. 9).

Still another argument is that the whole-language approach over-estimated FL students' ability to select and monitor what they learn. In other words, it failed to distinguish between L1 and FL students. As I think, this approach may fit only L1 students from the very beginning of schooling for two reasons. The first reason is that those students possess preschool language skills that enable them to concentrate on meaning and take full responsibility for their own learning. As Singer (1981) notes:

> **The language ability of most children at age 6 is already well developed. They have attained sophisticated control over their syntax, they possess a vocabulary of about 5000 words, and they have a phonological system that can adequately communicate their needs. (p. 295)**

The second reason is that L1 students use the language out of school in meaningful activities just like the activities the whole-language approach calls for. Conversely, in the FL context, children join schools without any FL background knowledge. Therefore, there will be a lack of fit if the whole-language approach is implemented in this context from the very beginning. It is also the height of unreasonableness to expect FL students to simultaneously learn all language skills from the very beginning.

A final argument against the whole-language approach is the lack of curriculum guides.

1.5 Conclusions

From the preceding discussion, it is clear that the skills-based approach stresses skills at the expense of meaning in spite of the fact that understanding and conveying meaning is the ultimate aim of language teaching and learning. It is also clear that the whole-language approach stresses meaning at the expense of skills in spite of the fact that skills are necessary for comprehending and conveying meaning. In other words, the whole-language approach as a reaction to the skills-based approach is too extreme. It follows, then, that

the need is clearly for a comprehensive approach that combines skills and meaning and moves from partial to total integration of language skills.

1.6 Principles of the comprehensive approach

In the comprehensive approach, teachers shift from closely-controlled to semi-controlled and finally to student-directed activities in every lesson at the primary and preparatory levels. At the same time, they move from local correction in the closely-controlled activities to global correction in the semi-controlled activities, and finally to no error correction in the student-directed activities. They also move from assessing micro-skills to assessing the comprehension and production of whole texts. With the use of this procedure in teaching, error correction and assessment in every lesson, teachers integrate subsidiary skills with main language skills at the primary level and main language skills with subsidiary skills at the preparatory level (see parts 2 and 3 in this book).

Then, with an emphasis on student-directed activities, error-tolerance, group-, peer-, and self-assessment, teachers integrate each two main language skills at the secondary level (see part 4 in this book) and all language skills at the university level (see part 5 in this book).

As noted above, the comprehensive approach shifts from skills to meaning in every lesson at the primary and preparatory levels and focuses on only meaning at the secondary and university levels. It also shifts gradually from partial to total integration of language skills. In the partial integration phase, the teacher moves from the integration of subsidiary skills with main language skills and vice versa to the integration of each two main language skills. In the total integration phase, the teacher integrates all language skills through literature-based programs.

The comprehensive approach also weaves error correction and assessment into the teaching-learning process to save the time for both teachers and students and to document students' progress over time.

In summary, the comprehensive approach is based on the behaviorists, cognitivists, and constructivists' views of language teaching/learning, error correction, and assessment. It also draws on the author's practical experience as well as research on first- and second-language teaching and learning. The following extracts show that such an approach is eagerly waited:

Direct guidance from tutors is preferred even in the self-access learning environment. A tutor-guided scheme may offer a pathway for learners to gradually start learning independently on this new ground of autonomous/self-access learning Tutor-guided schemes may also provide semi-autonomous learning situations for learners as they can have their own choices and at the same time be directed by tutors to begin with. (Kwan, 1999, p. 2)

In recent years we have seen the emergence of several diverse teaching methodologies. Each one is attracting practitioners who often contend that their particular technique is superior, to the exclusion of the others. However, despite the claims of these proponents, no single methodology adequately addresses the needs of all English-language students. On the contrary, evidence gained from practical experience strongly suggests that the strong points of a variety of methodologies, if skillfully combined, can complement one another, together forming a cohesive, realistic, and highly motivational teaching strategy. (Wilhoit, 1994, p. 32)

The "either-or" logic is damaging our educational possibilities. One can be an authority and a mediator, one can use both basals and literature, language is best learned as interactive and social, but there is a place for studying grammars, form, and usage. Any classroom works better when both direct and indirect teaching occur. Child-centered teaching does not occur in a vacuum; there must be content and a teacher who is doing her best to mediate and teach content in a dialogue with the student, making the notion of a child-centered versus a teacher-centered classroom a foolish concept. Obviously direct and indirect teaching must occur in realistic classrooms where direct instruction precedes group work. (Hedley, 1993, p. 55)

The teaching of EFL students should be based on an integrated approach which brings linguistic skills and communicative abilities into close association with each other; this is due to the fact that both language use and language usage are important. (Ibrahim, 1993, p. 98)

1.7 Self-checks

1. **Observe a whole language lesson taught by one of your colleagues either live or recorded. Note down the main difficulties he/she encountered in applying this approach.**
2. **Observe a skills-based lesson taught by one of your colleagues, either live or recorded. Note down your impressions of the affective features of this lesson based on how students felt during the lesson (bored/interested/ angry/amused/pleasant or whatever).**
3. **The role of the whole-language teacher differs from that of the skill-building teacher. Which one do you prefer to play? Why?**

Part Two

==========

Integrating Subsidiary Skills with Main Language Skills

==========

Chapter Two

Handwriting

2.0 What is handwriting?

The skills-based approach views handwriting as one of the subskills involved in writing. It also holds that handwriting involves many micro-skills such as shaping, spacing, slanting, etc. From the whole language perspective, handwriting is viewed as a process through which meaning is understood and/or created.

2.1 The importance of handwriting

In spite of the fact that we live in a world that venerates typewriters and computers, handwriting is still necessary in our daily lives. In the early 1980s, Rose (1982) expressed this idea which still holds true in the third millennium as follows:

> **Many situations still require a handwriting effort. Typewriters are usually impractical for note taking; and even when a typewriter is available, most of us prefer our love letters, notes of condolence and other personal communications to be handwritten. (p. 410)**

In addition to the great extent to which handwriting is used in our lives, its importance as an aid to the various aspects of language has been recognized by many educators and applied linguists (e.g., Feitelson, 1988; Getman, 1983; Graham and Madan, 1981; Kaminsky and Powers, 1981; Lehman, 1979). Lehman (1979), for example, wrote:

> **The various language skills used to produce and receive language all find support in handwriting. If reading is essentially decoding, handwriting is encoding; if composition is the communicating of ideas in an orderly way, handwriting lends a rhythmic stride to the whole process—mental organization, the act of writing, and the visual product; if spelling is arranging letters in an accepted sequence for the communicating of a word, handwriting is the physical act of doing it as well as the ordinary application of spelling skills. (p. 7)**

To the above benefits, Ruedy (1983) adds that good handwriting enhances students' self-confidence, develops positive attitudes towards writing, and makes the teacher's job more pleasant and less time-consuming.

Research has also shown that essays written in legible handwriting are assigned higher marks than illegible ones (Chase, 1986; Markham, 1976; Robinson, 1986).

It appears from the foregoing that handwriting is an important skill that does not operate in isolation. That is, it affects success in spelling, vocabulary, reading, and writing. This skill, therefore, deserves the attention of both teachers and researchers

2.2 The teaching and learning of handwriting

In skills-based classrooms, handwriting is taught as a separate skill through visual and verbal demonstrations of the formation of letters—that is, students see and listen to a description of the order and direction of the strokes of each letter. Then, they practice what has been demonstrated to them through the following:

(1) Tracing. In this type of practice, students trace the letter on dot-to-dot patterns in which the direction and order of strokes are guided through the use of arrows and/or numbers.

(2) Copying. In this type of practice, students are asked to copy a model letter several times.

As shown above, although the skills-based approach directs students' attention solely toward letter formation. Such an explicit letter formation instruction may be demotivating and time-consuming. Furthermore, it neglects the meaning which handwriting conveys.

In whole language classrooms, no direct instruction in handwriting is provided. Students unconsciously acquire letter formation through purposeful reading and writing activities. Although this may appear to be so for first language acquisition, it cannot be applied to EFL learners, particularly in the Arabic context where the mother tongue alphabet is completely different and runs from right to left.

An effective approach to teaching handwriting to Arabic-speaking students must, therefore, move from skills to meaning through the following three-step procedure:

(1) *Presentation of letters*. In this step, the teacher presents letters one by one utilizing the auditory, visual, kinesthetic, and tactile modalities of his/her students.

(2) *Reading and writing letters within the context of words and sentences*. In this step, students practice reading and copying the letters presented to them in step one as

well as others by sorting mixed words out and copying segments from substitution tables to make meaningful sentences.

(3) *Reading and writing letters within the context of whole paragraphs*. In this step, students practice letter formation through reading scrambled sentences and rewriting them to make up a meaningful paragraph. They may also fill in the missing words in a paragraph, and/or write a topic sentence to another paragraph.

2.3 Summary of research on handwriting instruction

A literature search indicated that most of the studies done in the area of handwriting instruction focused on the effect of the skills-based approach on handwriting. These studies found that this approach developed handwriting legibility (e.g., Askov and Greff, 1975; Hirsch and Niedermeyer, 1973; Manning, 1989; Pontello, 1999; Wood *et al*., 1987).

It is also evident, by literature, that research has not addressed the effect of the whole-language approach on handwriting and that only one study compared the handwriting development of students who received skills-

based instruction to that of students who received whole-language instruction. In this study Goldberg (1997) found that the skills-based approach produced more legible handwriting than did the whole-language approach.

As indicated, there is no evidence that the whole-language approach develops handwriting legibility. Moreover, empirical investigations comparing the effects of skills-based to whole-language instruction on handwriting are very rare.

To conclude this chapter, I claim that handwriting is not only a mechanical, lower-level skill but also a meaningful process. Accordingly, the integration of the skills-based approach and the whole-language approach can boost handwriting performance above the levels that occur with either alone. In support of this view, Farris (1991) states:

> [Handwriting] instruction is more efficient while ... instruction is more in line with the philosophy of whole language. However, without being introduced to and given instruction in the basic handwriting skills such as letter formation, alignment, slant and size, children are left to discover such skills on their

own. As such they develop inappropriate techniques and legibility suffers. (pp. 313-314)

2.4 Self-checks

1. What is handwriting?

2. Handwriting does not operate in isolation. Discuss.

3. From your own experience, do you agree with the author that the comprehensive approach is the most appropriate approach to teaching handwriting in the FL context? Why? Why not?

Chapter Three

Vocabulary

3.0 What is vocabulary?

The skills-based approach views vocabulary as one of the subskills involved in the major language skills. It also holds that vocabulary involves many micro-skills such as pronunciation, spelling, word structure, etc. In contrast, the whole-language approach views vocabulary as word meaning within the context, i.e. meaning which is more than the sum of individual words.

3.1 The importance of vocabulary

Vocabulary is a requisite for learning the main language skills. As Krashen (1989) points out, "A large vocabulary is, of course, essential for mastery of a language" (p. 439). McGinnis and Smith (1982) also point out that "without words a student seldom can understand what is being communicated to him nor can he express his thoughts to others" (p. 236). In this respect, Pittelman and Heimlich (1991) also add that vocabulary knowledge is important in understanding both spoken and written language. They state:

> **It is not surprising that vocabulary knowledge, or knowledge of word meanings, is critical to reading comprehension. In order for children to understand what they are reading, they must know the meanings of the words they encounter. Children with limited vocabulary knowledge...will experience difficulty comprehending both oral and written text. (p. 37)**

In support of the crucial role that vocabulary plays in reading comprehension, Crow (1986) claims that for adult L2 readers the biggest difficulty in reading is not the concepts of a text, but the words representing these concepts. Hague (1987) also claims that "to read, a reader must know words" and "to become a better reader, a reader must learn more words" (p. 218). Howell and Morehead (1987) go so far as to say that word meanings may account for up to 70% of the variability between students who do and students who do not score well on comprehension tests.

Research has provided an overwhelming evidence that even among adults word recognition accounts for a sizable amount of variance in reading ability (e.g., Bertelson, 1986; Gough and Tunmer, 1986; Morrison, 1984, 1987; Perfetti, 1985).

Research has also shown that there is a correlation between word knowledge and reading comprehension (e.g., Barr, 1985; Hoover and Gough, 1990; Kitao, 1988); and that when L2 readers' vocabulary is improved, their reading comprehension is also improved (e.g., Cziko, 1980; Davis, 1989; McDaniel and Pressley, 1986).

The role vocabulary plays in listening comprehension has also been emphasized by Mecartty (1995) who found that lexical knowledge is significantly related to listening comprehension.

Personke and Yee (1971) highlight the role that vocabulary plays in writing saying, "Fluency in writing is almost dependent upon a large store of words which can be written without thinking" (p. 22). Brynildssen (2000) also states that the ability to write hinges heavily upon an adequate vocabulary even more than does the ability to read.

The importance of vocabulary to general academic achievement has also been recognized by Zientarski and Pottorff (1994). They claim that students who "possess larger vocabularies tend to achieve greater success in their content courses" (p. 48). In support of this, Anderson and Freebody

(1981) reported a strong relationship between vocabulary and academic performance.

As shown above, vocabulary is an essential component of language and we would be totally mistaken if we ignore teaching it.

3.2 The teaching and learning of vocabulary

In skills-based classrooms, vocabulary is taught as individualized, decontextualized items. The techniques consistent with this perspective include structural analysis, morphological analysis, and definitions. The exercises associated with these techniques, synthesized from a number of sources, include the following:

(1) Analyzing words into units of meaning, i.e., base words, affixes, and inflections;

(2) Dividing compound words into free and bound morphemes, i.e., morphemes that can stand alone and morphemes that cannot;

(3) Adding suffixes and prefixes to root words to make as many new words as possible;

(4) Adding affixes to words to make ones that agree with the given definitions; e.g.,

--interesting = not interesting

joy-- = full of joy

(5) Using analogies to relate known to unknown words; e.g.,
teacher: students
-----: car

(6) Forming adverbs from adjectives;

(7) Matching acronyms with the expressions they come from;

(8) Matching contractions with their meanings;

(9) Forming past and past participle from root verbs;

(10) Forming plurals from singular nouns.

Proponents of the skills-based approach claim that teaching vocabulary apart from context facilitates the formulation of an accurate mental representation of each word and enhances storage in memory. As Ormrod (1986) points out, when words are presented in isolation, students' attention can be directed solely toward the learning of these words. Gough and Juel (1991) also contend that "what the child needs is a way to recognize novel words on the basis of their form rather than their context" (p. 51).

However, opponents of the skills-based approach claim that the decontextualized practice of vocabulary is contrary to the nature of the language. As Read (2000) puts it:

> **In normal language use, words do not occur by themselves or in isolated sentences but as integrated elements of whole texts and discourse. They belong in specific conversations, jokes, stories, letters, textbooks, legal proceedings, newspaper advertisements and so on. And the way that we interpret a word is significantly influenced by the context in which it occurs. (p. 4)**

Nagy and Anderson (1984) add that the sheer number of words a teacher has to teach casts serious doubt on the utility of direct vocabulary instruction.

In whole language classrooms, learners unconsciously acquire vocabulary through exposure to oral and written language. The major criticism of this approach is that a mere exposure to oral and written language may not necessarily facilitate vocabulary learning for several reasons. The first reason, as Jenkins and Dixon (1983) note, is that "when encountering a novel word in a context, the reader or listener may not recognize the situation as a vocabulary learning opportunity" (p. 239). A second reason is that students may shift their attention away from passage segments containing

difficult words (Anderson and Freebody, 1981). A third reason is that context does not always provide enough clues to word meaning because writers write to transmit ideas, not to define words (Beck *et al*., 1983; Schatz and Baldwin, 1986; Sinatra and Dowd, 1991). A fourth reason is that FL students' low proficiency may not permit acquiring words from context. It seems, therefore, that incidental learning of vocabulary from context may take place but not to the degree needed to explain large additions to students' vocabulary stores. As Watanabe (1997) notes, "Although incidental learning of vocabulary through context is possible, it is not always efficient" (p. 288).

From the foregoing, it seems that neither direct instruction nor incidental learning is sufficient for vocabulary development. Therefore, a combination of direct vocabulary instruction and incidental learning can boost vocabulary learning above the levels that occur with either alone. Accordingly, the comprehensive approach holds that the teaching of vocabulary should shift from identifying words in isolation to recognizing and using them in sentences, and finally to understanding and producing them in contexts. It also holds that the teacher should teach some new words and ask students to acquire others from context. In other words,

this approach asserts that basic vocabulary should be taught through direct instruction and other words will be learned naturally by the students. Here is the three-step procedure of this approach:

(1) *Recognizing words in isolation*. In this step, the teacher explains some of the basic, unknown words through structural analysis, definition, translation, etc.

(2) *Recognizing and using words in sentences*. In this step, students read the words, explained to them in step one, in meaningful sentences. Then, they use these words in sentences of their own.

(3) *Understanding and using words in contexts*. In this step, students understand the most appropriate meanings of the words, explained to them in step one, in an oral or written text. They also try to acquire other words from this text. Then, they summarize this text and discuss the issue(s) raised in it with one another.

3.3 Summary of research on vocabulary instruction

Research indicates that both the skills-based approach and the whole-language approach increase vocabulary achievement. Some studies obtained positive results with the skills-based approach. These studies revealed that: (1)

Morphological generalizations help students determine the meanings of unknown words (Wysocki and Jenkins, 1987); (2) Explicit instruction in context clues enhances students' ability to determine the meanings of unknown words from the context (Askov and Kamm, 1976; Huckin and Jin, 1987); (3) Phonics instruction positively affects word recognition (for a review of studies in this area, see Adams, 1990).

A second body of research (e.g., Herman *et al.*, 1987; Joe, 1998; Nagy *et al.*, 1985a, Reutzel and Cooter, 1990) demonstrated that incidental vocabulary learning during reading produced a small, but statistically reliable increase in word knowledge.

A third body of research found no significant differences between direct instruction and incidental learning in vocabulary achievement (Mercer, 1992; Nemko, 1984; Schatz and Baldwin, 1986; Shapiro and Gunderson, 1988).

The results of the above studies can be interpreted in light of the abilities of students participated in these studies. In support of this interpretation, research has shown that better readers profited more from context than did less skilled readers. Jenkins, Stein and Wysocki (1984), for example,

examined the hypothesis that new vocabulary knowledge can be acquired through incidental learning of word meanings from context. In their study, fifth graders of two reading abilities read passages containing unfamiliar words. The results indicated that better readers profited more from context than did less skilled readers. They concluded that "perhaps combinations of informal vocabulary instruction and incidental learning boost vocabulary learning above the levels that occur with either alone" (p. 785). A similar finding was also reported by McKeown (1985) who found that less skilled fifth graders were less able to identify the meaning of words from context even after context clues had been presented to them. Becerra-Keller (1993) also found that in grades 2 and 3 the use of the whole-language approach did not have an effect on vocabulary achievement, but in grade 4 it did seem to have an effect.

The results of the previously-mentioned studies provide evidence in support of the author's view that direct instruction and contextual learning can add significantly to the vocabulary of students of all ability levels. In support of this view and from their survey of research dealing with the conditions of vocabulary learning, Beck and McKeown (1991) concluded, "No one method has been shown to be

consistently superior.... [and] there is advantage from methods that use a variety of techniques" (p. 805). Chall (1987) also supports the comprehensive approach to teaching vocabulary in the following way:

> **It would seem from the research and from experience that both direct teaching and contextual learning are needed. Students need to learn words through reading, and they need to learn words directly, apart from the context. (p. 15)**

3.4 Self-checks

1. **Assign two of the classes you teach to either a context or a non-context condition. In the non-context condition teach words directly in isolation. In the context condition let students read the same words embedded in a passage. Find if your students can learn new words from the context and if the number of words learned from context is significantly greater than words learned from direct instruction.**
2. **From your own experience, do you agree with the author that neither direct instruction nor incidental learning seems to account for growth in students' vocabulary? Why? Why not?**

3. **Do you think that primary school students can acquire vocabulary only through exposure to oral and written texts? Why? Why not?**

Chapter Four

Spelling

4.0 What is spelling?

The skills-based approach views spelling as one of the subskills involved in reading and writing. It also holds that spelling involves many micro-skills such as letter-naming, phonics, word structure, etc. Conversely, the whole-language approach views spelling as a developmental process through which meaning is understood and/or created.

4.1 The importance of spelling

The importance of spelling lies in the fact that to be literate, one must become proficient in spelling. Learning to spell correctly is necessary for being a good writer (Graham, 1983; Scardamalia, 1981; Treiman, 1993). Treiman (1993), for example, expresses this idea in the following way:

> **The ability to spell words easily and accurately is an important part of being a good writer. A person who must stop and puzzle over the spelling of each word, even if that person is aided by a computerized**

> **spelling checker, has little attention left to devote to other aspects of writing. (p. 3)**

Spelling also improves reading because knowledge of spelling-sound correspondences is a basic component of reading. As Adams (1990) notes, "Skillful reading depends critically on the deep and thorough acquisition of spellings and spelling-sound relationships" (p. 421).

Moreover, research has shown that there is a strong relationship between spelling and reading (e.g., Bear and Barone, 1989; Ehri and Wilce, 1987; Gough *et al.*, 1992; Henderson, 1990; Juel *et al.*, 1986; Zutell, 1992; Zutell and Rasinski, 1989). Instruction in spelling has also been found to have a strong effect on beginning reading (e.g., Bradley, 1988; Bradley and Bryant, 1985; Uhry, 1989).

Research has also shown that there is a strong relationship between spelling and word recognition (e.g., Bear, 1982; Juel *et al.*, 1986), and between spelling and reading comprehension (e.g., Beers, 1980).

Moreover, poorly developed spelling knowledge has been shown to hinder children's writing and to obstruct their

vocabulary development (e.g., Adams *et al.*, 1996; Read, 1986), and to be the most frequent and pervasive cause of reading difficulty (e.g., Bruck, 1990; Perfetti, 1985; Rack *et al.*, 1992; Vellutino, 1991).

Some spelling theorists add that spelling is very much a part of listening and speaking (e.g., Buchanan, 1989; Gentry and Gillet, 1993).

4.2 The teaching and learning of spelling

In skills-based classrooms, teachers teach spelling rules through mechanical drills. Although this approach directs students' attention solely toward spelling, it has its own weaknesses. One weakness is that it draws students' attention away from the communicative function of spelling. Another weakness is that spelling rules have too many exceptions to be consciously learned (Parry and Hornsby, 1988; Smith, 1982).

In whole language classrooms, spelling is learned by immersing students in or exposing them to print (Goodman, 1986). Students are also encouraged to use invented spelling (approximate spelling) in writing (Clay, 1985; Invernizzi *et al.*, 1994; Wilde, 1992).

In spite of the fact that the whole-language approach to teaching spelling promotes independence and integrates spelling with language use, we cannot assume that proficiency in spelling will follow directly from engaging students in reading and writing activities. The reasons for this are stated by Treiman (1993) as follows:

> **There is some truth to the whole-language philosophy. Many children do pick up correspondences between letters and sounds on their own, even when the correspondences are not explicitly taught. However, the insight behind the whole-language approach—that children can learn many things on their own—should not be pushed too far. For one thing, not all children easily pick up relations between phonemes and graphemes on their own. For another thing, this learning is more rapid for some correspondences than for others. (pp. 124-125)**

Opponents of the whole-language approach also claim that students cannot invent spelling without linguistic information. Such information is indeed the primary source of invented spelling. In support of this claim, Tangel and Blackman (1992) found that phonemic awareness instruction

positively affects children's invented spelling. They then concluded that "in order to produce invented spellings, a child must possess some degree of linguistic awareness" (p. 235). Additionally, I claim that FL beginners cannot invent spelling because they lack the speaking skill which they segment during this process.

From the foregoing, it seems that we need an approach that shifts from direct instruction to incidental learning of spelling. Below is the three-step procedure of this approach:

(1) *Presentation of spelling rules*. In this step, students receive direct instruction in a spelling rule at a time.

(2) *Learning spelling through reading*. In this step, students see how the spelling rule, explained to them in step one, is applied in a reading passage. They also develop visual images of the words in this passage.

(3) *Producing spelling through writing*. In this step, students apply the spelling rule explained to them in summarizing the text they read in step two. They are then asked to write a paragraph about a self-selected topic and to invent spelling of words whose spelling is unknown to them.

As noted, the comprehensive approach asserts that it is of utmost importance that the teacher should teach the spelling of some words and ask students to acquire the spelling of others from context and through invented spelling.

4.3 Summary of research on spelling instruction

Many studies demonstrated an increase in spelling ability under the skills-based approach (e.g., Ball and Blackman, 1991; Connelly *et al*., 1999; Ghazi, 1983; Gordon, 1992; Haan, 1999; Lie, 1991; Robinson, 1980; White, 1988).

Other studies demonstrated an increase in spelling ability under the whole-language approach (e.g., Cunningham and Stanovich 1990; Shapiro and Gunderson, 1988; Stanovich and West, 1989).

As shown above, research in the area of spelling provides indirect evidence that instead of either-or planning of spelling instruction, the comprehensive approach can be more effective in increasing spelling achievement.

Direct support for the comprehensive approach to teaching spelling comes from studies done by Castle *et al*. (1994), Rosencrans (1995) and Shefelbine (1995). Castle *et al*. (1994)

found that providing phonemic-awareness instruction within a whole language program had significant effects on spelling and reading performance. Rosencrans (1995) found that direct instruction within a whole language spelling program increased children's spelling achievement. Shefelbine (1995) found that combining temporary (invented) spelling with systematic, formal spelling instruction resulted in more rapid growth in both correct spelling and word recognition than did either approach alone.

4.4 Self-checks

1. Do you agree with the author that skills and meaning must be combined in the teaching of spelling? Why? Why not?
2. Develop a plan that moves from skills to meaning in teaching a particular spelling rule.
3. Which is the most appropriate approach to teaching spelling to your students? Give reasons.

Chapter Five

Grammar

5.0 What is grammar?

The skills-based approach views grammar as a set of micro-skills, including syntax, morphology, rhetorical organization, etc. Conversely, the whole-language approach views grammar as an instrument of understanding and creating ideas in whole texts.

5.1 The importance of grammar

The underlying rationale for the teaching of grammar in EFL classrooms is multi-faceted. Teachers teach grammar to EFL students because it helps them produce messages. Without grammar, as Schleppegrell (1998) claims, such students cannot speak or write effectively.

Grammar also helps to make language input more comprehensible (Eskey and Grabe, 1989; Scarcella and Oxford, 1992). With respect to reading comprehension, for example, Eskey and Grabe (1989) point out that "reading requires a relatively high degree of grammatical control over structures that appear in whatever readings are given to

students" (p. 226). We also teach grammar because the constraints of the FL classroom make its natural acquisition almost impossible (Alexander, 1990).

Moreover, there is evidence that grammar instruction improves students written and oral language proficiency (e.g., Davis, 1996; Fotos, 1992; Govindasamy, 1995; Melendez, 1993; Yeung, 1993).

5.2 The teaching and learning of grammar

The skill-building teachers teach the rules of grammar explicitly and then have students practice these rules through mechanical exercises. Such exercises consist of isolated and unrelated sentences. Among these exercises are the following:

(1) Substitution exercises. In this type of exercises, students get accurate sentences by picking words/phrases from columns, one from each.

(2) Transformation exercises. In this type of exercises, students change sentences in certain ways in response to call-words.

Opponents of the skills-based approach to teaching grammar claim that an overemphasis on explicit grammar can produce a situation in which students see grammar as more important

than the meaning they are trying to understand or convey. They also claim that the teaching of grammar is time consuming, and the more time spent on teaching grammar, the less time spent on using the language. Krashen and Terrell (1983) add that "any grammar-based method which purports to develop communication skills will fail with the majority of students" (p. 16). Along the same line, in his book, *Writing with Power*, Elbow (1981) states that grammar interferes with writing. He further states that the teaching of grammar in isolation does not lead to improvement in students' writing; and that grammar is not only unnecessary but also harmful.

> **Learning grammar is a formidable task that takes crucial energy away from working on your writing, and worse yet, the process of learning grammar interferes with writing: it heightens your preoccupation with mistakes as you write out each word and phrase, and makes it almost impossible to achieve that undistracted attention to your thoughts and experiences as you write that is so crucial for strong writing. For most people, nothing helps their**

> **writing so much as learning to ignore grammar (p. 169).**

In whole language classrooms, grammar is learned incidentally through oral and written communication. In spite of the fact that such an approach focuses on meaning, it can lead to the development of an ungrammatical, pidginized form of the foreign language beyond which students cannot progress (Celce-Murcia, 1991; Gary and Gary, 1981). Thus, the major problem with the whole-language approach is that it sacrifices accuracy for the sake of fluency. As Hammerly (1991) puts it:

> **When communication is emphasized early in a language program, linguistic accuracy suffers and linguistic competence does not develop much beyond the point needed for the bare transmission of messages.... In the classroom, fluency does not lead to accuracy, and most errors do not disappear through communicative interaction. In the classroom, a language cannot be acquired unconsciously with good results. But through largely conscious procedures a language can be successfully learned in**

> **the classroom. This can be done quite well through systematic instruction, which should precede and build up to part of the curriculum being taught in SL. (p. 10)**

From the foregoing, it seems that both the skills-based approach and the whole-language approach to teaching grammar are complementary. Therefore, I claim that combining both approaches can be more effective than relying on one of them alone. In support of the suggested approach, Hammerly (1991) notes that

> **An early emphasis on free communication ... seems to guarantee linguistic incompetence at the end of the program, just as surely as an exclusive emphasis on linguistic structure guarantees communicative incompetence. (p. 10)**

Omaggio (1986) also suggests that there should be emphasis on both grammatical accuracy and meaningful communication and that early meaningful verbal communication is not possible without some grammatical knowledge.

The same standpoint is also supported by Pachler and Bond (1999) in the following way:

> **Foreign language teachers must not only focus on developing the learner's explicit [knowledge of grammar] but also on facilitating the development of his or her implicit knowledge by creating an acquisition-rich classroom environment. (p. 100)**

What is needed, then, is a combination of grammar instruction and whole language. In this new approach, grammar should be taught for the sake of communication, not for its own sake. Such an approach should shift from explicit teaching of grammatical rules to using these rules for understanding and expressing meaning in communicative contexts. Here is the three-step procedure of this approach:

(1) ***Presentation of grammatical rules*****. In this step, the teacher explains one grammatical rule at a time. Such a rule should provide the basis for the other two steps.**

(2) ***Understanding grammar in whole texts*****. In this step, the teacher provides students with an oral or written text in which the grammatical rule, explained to them in step one, is used. While listening to or reading this text,**

students focus on the meaning given by this specific rule. They also try to pick up other rules on their own.

(3) *Using grammar in producing whole texts*. In this step, students use the grammatical rule explained to them as well as the rules they acquired by themselves in summarizing the text presented to them in step two and discussing the issue(s) raised in this text with one another.

5.3 Summary of research on grammar instruction

A body of research revealed that communicative language teaching did not lead to grammatical accuracy (e.g., Harley and Swain, 1984; Swain, 1985, 1989).

A second body of research revealed that learners who received explicit grammar instruction showed greater gains on grammatical competence than did those who received implicit or no instruction (e.g., Concepcion, 1992; Doughty, 1991; Graaff, 1997; Master, 1994; Moroishi, 1998; Scott, 1989, 1990).

A third body of studies indicated that form-focused instruction was more useful in second language learning, when aimed at the perception and processing of input than

when it focused on practice as output (e.g., Day and Shapson, 1991; VanPatten and Cadiemo, 1993).

Viewed collectively, research in the area of grammar shows that grammar can be regarded as both a skill and a process and that a combination of form and meaning can contribute to higher levels of accuracy and fluency.

In support of the comprehensive approach to teaching grammar, some studies found that students who received explicit grammar instruction within communicatively organized classrooms showed greater accuracy in subsequent use of the grammar points taught to them than students who received form-oriented instruction alone or no form-oriented instruction at all (e.g., Bernardy, 1998; Lightbown and Spada, 1990; Montgomery and Eisenstein, 1985; Spada, 1987; White, 1991; White *et al*., 1991).

5.4 Self-checks

1. **What role can grammar play in foreign/second language learning?**
2. **Is grammar a means or an end? Why?**
3. **Develop two lesson plans—one is explicit and the other is implicit—for teaching a particular grammatical rule. Then**

apply them in two classes at the same level (one for each). Find if there are any differences in understanding and using this rule in oral communication between the two classes.

Chapter Six

Pronunciation

6.0 What is pronunciation?

According to the skills-based approach, the concept of pronunciation involves sounds of the language, stress, intonation, etc. The whole-language approach views pronunciation as a process through which meaning is understood and/or created.

6.1 The importance of pronunciation

The importance of pronunciation lies in the fact that it helps students read effectively. Additionally, students must know the sounds that letters make in order to speak, and understand what others say.

In support of the importance of pronunciation, research has shown that phonological awareness is more highly related to learning to read (e.g., Ehri, 1992; Share *et al.*, 1984; Stanovich, 1986, 1993, 1993-94; Tunmer and Hoover, 1992), and to spell (e.g., Ehri, 1992; Liberman *et al.*, 1985; Lundberg *et al.*, 1980; Nation and Hulme, 1997; Perin, 1983).

It has also been found that phonological awareness is the most important causal factor separating normal and disabled readers (e.g., Share and Stanovich, 1995).

Research has also shown that phonetic analytic skills are predictors of beginning reading achievement (e.g., Evans and Carr, 1985; Fox and Routh, 1976; Tunmer and Nesdale, 1985; Williams, 1980); and that there is a causal link between phonics knowledge and reading comprehension (e.g., Andrews, 1985; Eldredge *et al*., 1990).

6.2 The teaching and learning of pronunciation

The skills-oriented teachers teach the rules of pronunciation explicitly and then have students practice these rules through segmentation and blending exercises such as the following:

(1) Identifying the sounds of letters;

(2) Dividing words into sounds;

(3) Breaking up words into syllables;

(4) Counting phonemes in words;

(5) Blending phonemes to compose words;

(6) Segmenting words into phonemes;

(7) Locating the stressed syllable within words;

(8) Isolating the initial, middle, or final sound of a word;

(9) Generating words that begin with a specific initial phoneme;

(10) Making new words by substituting one phoneme for another;

(11) Deleting a particular phoneme and regenerating a word from the remainder;

(12) Distinguishing two English sounds from each other;

(13) Distinguishing an English sound from interfering sounds in the student's mother tongue;

(14) Specifying which sound has been left out in words like meat and eat;

(15) Recognizing rhyme in words like meet and seat;

(16) Listening to a group of words to identify which one is different in pronunciation.

Advocates of the skills-based approach claim that if pronunciation is not taught, it naturally follows that errors will occur. However, opponents of this approach argue that concentrating too heavily on phonics instruction will result in losing the natural insight that language is meaningful. They also claim that sounds and stresses differ and affect one another within the flow of speech. They further claim that students cannot endure the non-contextual phonics training (McNally, 1994), and that "rules of phonics are too

complex...and too unreliable...to be useful" (Smith, 1992, p. 438). Weaver (1980) goes so far as to say, "Sounding out a word is a cumbersome, time-consuming, and unnecessary activity" (p. 86).

Whole language teachers leave pronunciation instruction out. They claim that phonics is best learned incidentally through listening, speaking, reading and writing. Winsor and Pearson (1992), for example, claim that when students engage in invented spelling during writing, they segment the speech stream into phonemes, and this, in turn, develops their phonemic awareness and phonetic knowledge. Along the same line, Weaver (1980) states, "Children can develop and use an intuitive knowledge of letter-sound correspondences [without] any phonics instruction [or] without deliberate instruction from adults" (p. 86). Goodman (1991) also states, "Talking about letters and about the sounds of letters is sheer jabberwacky. Thorough knowledge of letters and their sounds is not required in order to read words; phonic skills come with reading" (p. 108).

However, opponents of the whole-language approach argue that this approach provides little help in making graphic-phonemic information explicit to students; and this causes severe pronunciation problems that are difficult to erase.

In light of the foregoing, the author claims that both phonics and whole language are important, neither is satisfactory by itself. Accordingly, the comprehensive approach shifts from the presentation of phonics rules to understanding and then producing pronunciation in whole texts. Below is the three-step procedure of this approach:

(1) ***Presentation of pronunciation rules*****. In this step, the teacher explains one pronunciation rule at a time. Such a rule should be relevant to his/her students' communicative needs.**

(2) ***Understanding pronunciation in whole texts*****. In this step, the teacher provides students with an oral text in which the pronunciation rule, explained to them in step one, is used. While listening to this text, the students focus on the meanings of utterances within the context and try to acquire the pronunciation of other words from this context.**

(3) ***Using pronunciation in producing whole texts*****. In this step, students use the pronunciation rule explained to**

them as well as the rules they acquired by themselves in discussing the issue(s) raised in the text presented to them in step two and in acting out or role-playing a situation they encounter in daily life.

6.3 Summary of research on pronunciation instruction

Many studies showed that the teaching of phonics through explicit instruction improved students' pronunciation skills (e.g., Griffith and Olson, 1992; Isaacs, 1996; Lundberg *et al*., 1988; Murakawa, 1982). For more studies that show the advantages of direct and systematic teaching of phonics in early grades, see Adams (1990) and Chall (1983). Other studies indicated that whole language programs resulted in the acquisition of phonics skills (e.g., Shapiro and Gunderson, 1988).

As shown, research in the area of phonics shows that both the skills-based approach and the whole-language approach have positive effects on students' phonological skills. Therefore, the author claims that a comprehensive approach can yield better results than relying on either the skills-based approach or the whole-language approach alone.

Direct support of the comprehensive approach to teaching pronunciation comes from many studies which demonstrated that students who received explicit pronunciation instruction within whole language classrooms showed greater gains than either the skills-based approach or the whole-language approach alone (e.g., Castle, 1999; Larsen, 1997; Walther, 1998). For more studies that show the advantages of combining phonics and whole language in early reading instruction, see Honig (1996), and Sherman (1998).

6.4 Self-checks

1. **Pronunciation is both a prerequisite and a consequence of learning to read and speak. Discuss.**
2. **Two options exist for integrating pronunciation and whole language. Some methodologists believe that teachers should begin with discourse-level and work down to discrete sounds; others believe that teachers should begin with discrete sounds and work up to discourse-level. Which one, do you think, is more effective for EFL students? Why?**
3. **Phonics and whole language are not alternative routes to the same goals. Discuss.**

Chapter Seven

Punctuation

7.0 What is punctuation?

From the skill-building perspective, punctuation is defined as a collection of micro-skills including the full stop, the question mark, the colon, the semicolon, etc. From the whole language perspective, punctuation is defined as a process of making sense by grouping, dividing, organizing, separating, and categorizing ideas in whole texts.

7.1 The importance of punctuation

The importance of punctuation lies in the fact that it achieves the clarity and effectiveness of writing. It also links or separates groups of ideas and distinguishes what is important in the sentence from what is subordinate (Bruthiaux, 1993).

Punctuation marks are also the reader's signposts. They send out messages that say stop, ask a question, and so on (Backscheider, 1972; Rose, 1982).

7.2 The teaching and learning of punctuation

The skill-building teachers teach punctuation as a separate skill through explicit instruction of the punctuation rules. Students then practice what they have been taught by punctuating individual, uncontextualized sentences. Advocates of this approach claim that direct instruction of punctuation rules makes punctuation easier to learn. However, critics of this approach claim that such rules are meaningless when taught alone. They add that the teaching of such meaningless rules leads to rote learning and to negative attitudes towards punctuation and writing in general. These negative attitudes lead, in turn, to writing behavior whose purpose is to avoid bad writing, not to create good writing (Limaye, 1983). They also claim that direct instruction in punctuation takes the time that can be profitably spent in actual writing.

Whole language teachers leave punctuation instruction out. They claim that punctuation grows out of students' experience in reading and writing (Wilde, 1992). In spite of the fact that this approach stresses meaning, its critics claim that not all students acquire punctuation rules simply through immersion in a print-rich environment, and that

some students need direct instruction in this aspect of language.

From the foregoing, it appears that the two approaches can make a contribution—that is, none of them can do the whole job. In other words, I claim that combining the two approaches can be more effective than relying exclusively on either alone. Therefore, the so-called comprehensive approach claims that a combination of the two approaches can be superior to just adopting one of them. This approach holds that the teaching of punctuation should move from the presentation of rules to understanding and producing these rules in reading and writing activities. Here is the three-step procedure of this approach:

(1) ***Presentation of punctuation rules*****. In this step, the teacher explains one punctuation rule at a time. Such a rule should be relevant to his/her students' communicative needs.**

(2) ***Understanding punctuation in whole texts*****. In this step, the teacher provides students with a written text in which the punctuation rule, explained to them in step one, is used. While reading this text, students focus on the meaning given by this specific rule. They also try to pick up other rules on their own.**

(3) *Using punctuation in producing whole texts*. In this step, students use the punctuation rule explained to them as well as the rules they acquired by themselves in writing whole texts. In doing so, they move from summarizing the text they read in step two to creating a text of their own.

7.3 Summary of research on punctuation instruction

A literature review related to punctuation instruction revealed that some studies demonstrated that the teaching of punctuation through explicit instruction increased students' awareness of punctuation marks (e.g., Abou-Hadid, 1994; Nazir, 1985).

Other studies indicated that whole language programs resulted in the acquisition of punctuation skills (e.g., Calkins, 1980; Edelsky, 1983).

Still other studies showed that the whole-language approach was as effective as the skills-based approach in increasing students' awareness of punctuation marks (Lopez, 1986; Mancillas, 1986; Miller, 1986; Varner, 1986).

The research reviewed in this chapter is clearly in line with the author's suggestion that the teaching of punctuation should move from skills to meaning.

7.4 Self-checks

1. **Punctuation is both a prerequisite and a consequence of learning to read and write. Discuss.**
2. **Find whether you can use the whole-language approach to teaching punctuation in your classes.**
3. **It seems that rules are not sufficient for perfect punctuation. Do you think so? Why? Why not?**

Part Three

==========

Integrating Main Language Skills with Subsidiary Skills

==========

Chapter Eight

Listening

8.0 What is listening?

From the skill-building perspective, listening is defined as a collection of micro-skills, including phonics, vocabulary, grammar, etc. In this respect, some language teaching theorists and researchers have constructed a number of taxonomies delineating the micro-skills needed for effective listening (e.g., DeHaven, 1988; Field, 1997; Lund, 1990; Lundsteen, 1989; Peterson, 1991; Richards, 1983; Rivers, 1981; Rubin, 1990; Wipf, 1984). Richards' (1983) taxonomy, for example, lists 33 microskills that students need to master for effective conversational listening, and 18 microskills for academic listening. From the whole language perspective, listening is defined as an active process in which the student constructs meaning from an oral text.

The definition of listening, which in the author's opinion provides a sound theoretical base to develop listening in EFL students, must involve both skills and meaning. The following extracts are in support of the author's view:

In developing classroom activities and materials for teaching listening comprehension, a clear understanding is needed of the nature of top-down and bottom-up approaches to listening and how these processes relate to different kinds of listening purposes. (Richards, 1990, p. 65)

L2 listening is not just a "bottom-up" skill in which the meaning can be derived from perception or comprehension of the sum of all discrete sounds, syllables, words, or phrases (Ur, 1984). L2 listening does indeed involve some "bottom-up" processing, but at the same time it requires substantial amounts of "top-down" processing in which meaning is inferred from broad contextual clues and background knowledge (Richards, 1983). (Oxford, 1993, p. 207)

8.1 The importance of listening

There are a number of reasons why listening is important for first- and second-language learners. Firstly, and most importantly, listening is an essential prerequisite for oral communication to take place (Benson and Hijett, 1980).

Secondly, it often influences the development of reading and writing (Scarcella and Oxford, 1992), and helps to enlarge students' vocabulary (Rubin, 1982). Thirdly, it plays a central role in academic success because the lecture remains the most widely used method for instruction at all levels (Dunkel, 1991; Powers, 1985).

8.2 The teaching and learning of listening

In skills-based classrooms, the teaching of listening emphasizes the mastery of the subskills involved in listening for hope that students themselves would put these subskills together and become proficient listeners. These subskills include identifying isolated speech sounds, recognizing words with reduced syllables, recognizing the stress patterns of words, distinguishing between similar-sounding words (as between cat and cut), recognizing reduced forms of words, discriminating between intonation contours in spoken sentences, recognizing typical word-order patterns, etc. These subskills and many others are mastered individually through direct explanation, modeling and repetition. The mastery of each subskill is then measured by means of a discrete-point test before moving to the next.

Although efficient auditory perception underlies effective listening, it is not right to suppose that learning to listen involves massive practice with decoding alone (Rost, 1992).

In whole language classrooms, listening is learned as a unitary art because normal speech, as whole language theoreticians believe is continuous and not chopped up into discrete sounds. Therefore, whole language teachers teach listening in real, meaningful communication settings. In these settings, students fit everything they hear into a context.

It is clear that the whole-language approach stresses meaning at the expense of skills in spite of the fact that the lack of skills can present an obstacle to FL comprehension. This is largely because FL listeners are still mastering the basic patterns of phonology and grammar which the native speaker understands so effortlessly.

As mentioned above, it seems that the skills-based approach and the whole-language approach are not mutually exclusive but rather tend to complement each other.

The preceding discussion also offers support for the theoretical position of the comprehensive approach to

teaching FL listening. This approach suggests the following three-step procedure for the teaching of listening to EFL students:

(1) *Presentation of listening skills*. In this step, the teacher explains some new vocabulary, a new structure and a phonics rule. Such skills should provide the basis for the other two steps.

(2) *Guided listening*. In this step, students listen to a short passage or dialogue. While listening, and under the guidance of their teacher, students focus on the meanings of the language items explained to them in step one. They also try to guess the meanings of other language items from the context.

(3) *Independent listening*. In this step, each student independently listens to a passage or dialogue compatible with his/her prior knowledge. After listening, s/he proceeds on her/his own from answering questions about the ideas explicitly stated in the text, to answering questions that require information inferred from or implied in this text. S/he then discusses what s/he listened to with other students.

8.3 Summary of research on listening instruction

Although relatively little research is available in the area of listening, some studies showed that proficiency in listening was attained through direct instruction in listening subskills (e.g., Al-Gameel, 1982; Cosgrove and Patterson, 1978; Geiss and Mayer, 1998; Ironsmith and Whitehurst, 1978; Ratliff, 1987). On the other hand, Stelly (1991) found that the whole-language approach was effective in improving listening comprehension.

Viewed collectively, previous research on listening instruction provides indirect evidence that a combination of both the skills-based approach and the whole-language approach can boost students' listening above the levels that occur with either alone.

Direct support for the comprehensive approach also comes from two studies done by El-Koumy (2000, 2002). These studies showed that the skills-based approach was effective only for low ability listeners, whereas the whole-language approach was effective only for high ability listeners. These results suggest that the comprehensive approach can serve both low and high ability listeners.

8.4 Self-checks

1. **Which of the three approaches mentioned in this chapter do you feel most comfortable with? Why?**
2. **With reference to the three-step procedure given in 8.2, develop a listening lesson plan for one of the lessons you teach. Find out how well, or badly, it works with your students.**
3. **Aural decoding is essential for listening comprehension, but it is not sufficient. Discuss.**

Chapter Nine

Speaking

9.0 What is speaking?

From the skill-building perspective, speaking is defined as a collection of micro-skills, including vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, etc. From the whole language perspective, speaking is defined as an oral process of meaning construction and expression.

The definition of speaking, which in the author's opinion provides a sound theoretical base to promote speaking in EFL students, must combine both skills and meaning.

9.1 The importance of speaking

In the modern world, English is used as an international language in many fields such as diplomacy, trade and tourism. Non-native speakers, therefore, frequently find themselves in many situations where they have to speak in English.

Moreover, talk in the classroom can develop students' thinking skills because it "introduces them to new

perspectives [that] ... facilitate reflection and innovative thinking" (Wollman-Bonilla, 1993, p. 49).

Speaking is also regarded by some linguists as the foundation for other language skills. As Palmer (1965) points out, "Learning to speak a language is always by far the shortest road to learning to read and to write it" (p. 15). In the same vein, research suggests that "the practice of hurrying children away from talk into work with paper and pencil – of discounting their oracy – has grave effects on their literacy" (Gillard, 1996, p. xiii).

9.2 The teaching and learning of speaking

In skills-based classrooms, speaking is taught as a set of discrete subskills through oral mechanical drills. These subskills include pronouncing the distinctive sounds of the English language, using stress and intonation patterns, using the correct forms of words, putting words in correct word order, etc. On the other hand, in whole language classrooms, the ability to speak is developed from spontaneous interaction in naturalistic situations.

Opponents of the skills-based approach to teaching speaking claim that the teaching of skills is tedious and meaningless.

On the other hand, opponents of the whole-language approach claim that spontaneous interaction may lead students to cease progress at a certain level. They further claim that no one can speak effectively without language form. Additionally, unlike native speakers, FL beginners cannot spontaneously interact with the teacher or with one another because they lack the skills that enable them to do so.

On the basis of the preceding discussion, it is the author's contention that ignoring skills or meaning may result in making speech generation more difficult for EFL students. In other words, I claim that both skills and meaning are necessary for students to speak a foreign language fluently.

In support of the author's view, Dobson (1989) suggests that for teaching speaking to EFL students, the teacher should "help the student move from pseudo-communication, in which his use of English is fictitiously concocted and predictable, to communication where he expresses his personal ideas and needs in the context of reality" (p. 1). Accordingly, the comprehensive approach holds that the teaching of speaking to EFL students should move from oral drills to guided conversation, and finally to free-

communication in every lesson. This three-step procedure is explained below.

(1) *Presentation of speaking skills*. In this step, the teacher explains the reduced forms of some words and/or phrases, a speaking rule and a phonics rule. Such skills should provide the basis for the other two steps.

(2) *Guided conversation*. In this step, the teacher prompts students to interact with him/her or with one another, within the limits of their competence and the new materials introduced in step one and in previous lessons. S/he can use "Ask me/your colleague What/When/ Where...." or "Ask me/your colleague if...."

(3) *Free conversation.* In this step, the teacher provides opportunities for the students to engage actively in using the newly introduced language items, among others, in peer or small group discussions. In these discussions, students express themselves in an uncontrolled way. Meanwhile, the teacher can move among them to make sure that every student is participating.

9.3 Summary of research on speaking instruction

In support of the skills-based approach to teaching speaking, a number of studies showed that proficiency in speaking was attained through direct instruction in speaking skills (e.g., Al-Gameel, 1982; Donahue and Bryan, 1983; Gafaar, 1982; Hieke, 1981; Sonnenschein and Whitehurst, 1980; Whitehurst, 1976; Whitehurst and Merkur, 1977).

On the other hand, Starvish (1985) found that the whole-language approach was effective in improving speech generation.

Indirect support for the skills-based approach to teaching speaking also comes from a study done by Howe (1985). This study revealed a higher positive correlation between phonological, morphological, syntactic, and semantic processes involved in speech generation.

Viewed collectively, previous research on speaking instruction provides indirect evidence that a combination of both the skills-based approach and the whole-language approach can boost students' speaking above the levels that occur with either alone. Direct support for the comprehensive

approach also comes from studies done by Higgs and Clifford (1982) and Porter (1986).

Higgs and Clifford (1982) found that learners in a class of foreign/second language, labeled terminal 2/2+, were stuck at the Advanced/Advanced-Plus level of speaking on the ACTFL proficiency scale. (The 2/2+ level was described as the ability to "fully participate in casual conversation, express facts, give instructions, describe, report on, and provide narration about current, past, and future activities".) That is, they exhibited "fossilized" language behavior that they were apparently unable to ameliorate. Higgs and Clifford attributed this phenomenon to arriving at this level through "communication-first" experience—either in a classroom where grammatical precision was not valued or through learning the language in a natural, uninstructed setting. They compared these terminal learners to others who arrived at the same point through an "accuracy-first" program and found that learners in the latter group were capable of progressing beyond the 2/2+ boundary. These data imply that accuracy-based, explicit instruction is necessary in order to avoid producing students who cease progress in speech generation at a certain level.

In her study Porter (1986) found that ESL learners could not provide each other with the accurate grammatical and sociolinguistic input. In discussing the implication of this finding, she stated that teachers have to make explicit presentation of appropriate language in the classroom.

9.4 Self-checks

1. **The author suggests a three-step procedure for teaching speaking to EFL students. What are the differences among these steps in terms of the teacher's role, the student's role, and the teaching/learning materials?**
2. **The procedure suggested by the author for the teaching of speaking incorporates speaking with vocabulary, grammar, and phonics. Discuss.**
3. **Choose a speaking lesson from the textbook you use and teach it in light of the three-step procedure mentioned before. Discuss the results with your colleagues.**

Chapter Ten

Reading

10.0 What is reading?

The skills-based approach views reading as a collection of separate skills, including phonics, word recognition, grammar, etc. Under the influence of this view, a number of reading specialists have extrapolated sets of micro-skills which they assume to be necessary for reading comprehension. In this regard, Gough (1972), like many others (e.g., Gough and Juel, 1991; LaBerge and Samuels, 1974), divides reading into two major components: (1) graphemic information and (2) phonemic patterns. Flood and Lapp (1991) separate reading into four major components: (1) knowledge of letters and sound correspondences, (2) knowledge of words and word forms, (3) knowledge of grammatical structures of sentences and their functions, and (4) knowledge of meanings and semantic relations. Similarly, Smith (1997) suggests that the mechanics of reading include: (1) basic vocabulary and syntactic competence, (2) recognizing letters, (3) pairing graphic shapes with sounds, and (4) recognizing words as smaller units of meaning and sentences as larger units of meaning. As a proponent of the

skills-based approach, Randall (1996) views reading as decoding of visual symbols or letters and suggests that word recognition skills should be given a high priority within any reading course for EFL beginners.

The whole-language approach adopts the opposite viewpoint that reading is an active process in which the reader constructs meaning from a written text. As Smith (1994) puts it:

> **Identification or apprehension of meaning does not require the prior identification of words. Reading usually involves bringing meaning immediately or directly to the text without awareness of individual words or their possible alternative meanings. (p. 149)**

The definition of reading, which in the author's opinion provides a sound theoretical base to develop reading in EFL students, must combine both skills and meaning. In support of this view, Carrell (1989) states:

> **Both top-down and bottom-up processing, functioning interactively, are necessary to an**

> **adequate understanding of second language reading and reading comprehension. (p. 4)**

Supporting the same view, Fritz (1996) says:

> **I propose that both bottom-up and top-down reading processes are equally vital to the general process of reading, each in its own right. (p. 38)**

McDonough and Shaw (1993) also support the same balanced view saying:

> **In many cases an efficient reader appears to use what are called 'top-down' and 'bottom-up' strategies.... In other words, the top-down process interacts with the bottom-up process in order to aid comprehension. (p. 109)**

Norris and Hoffman (1993) also emphasize the importance of combining both skills and meaning in the teaching of reading comprehension in this way:

> **Ignoring either top-down or bottom-up cues results in making the reading process more artificial and difficult than natural language processing, which is simultaneous and integrated. All levels of**

> information are necessary to the process of reconstructing the author's message, and a disruption of any one level will have reciprocal effects on all levels. (p. 145)

10.1 The importance of reading

Reading English as a foreign language is very important for several reasons. First, it is critical to success in some academic majors such as medicine and engineering in Egyptian universities. Second, it is a useful source for information that might be missed in class lectures (Huckin and Bloch, 1993). Third, it can improve native language reading (Levine and Reves 1985). Fourth, it can accelerate foreign language learning and improve other language skills (Cohen, 1990; Harmer, 1998). Finally, it is a major means of learning both vocabulary (Herman *et al*., 1987; Nagy and Anderson, 1984; Nagy *et al*., 1987) and spelling (Cunningham and Stanovich, 1990; Stanovich and West, 1989).

10.2 The teaching and learning of reading

In skills-based classrooms, reading is taught sequentially as a set of discrete subskills. These subskills include distinguishing between isolated sounds in the foreign language, identifying the spelling of consonant sounds which are regularly

represented by a combination of letters, identifying the pronunciation of the verb suffixes: --s, --es, --ed, identifying the pronunciation of the noun suffixes: --s, --'s, --s', identifying long and short vowels, contrasting hard and soft sounds, identifying vowel diphthongs, contrasting homophones (i.e., words that are identical in pronunciation but different in spelling, e.g., missed and mist), contrasting homographs (i.e., words that are identical in spelling but different in meaning and sometimes pronunciation, e.g., minute as very small and part of time), identifying commonly confused and mispronounced words (e.g., accept, expect, and except), recognizing morphemic units (roots, prefixes, and suffixes), identifying syllables within words, dividing words into syllables, locating syllable boundaries within multisyllabic words, locating the accented syllables, determining the grammatical categories that words and phrases fall into, distinguishing between similar-sounding words, identifying stressed and unstressed syllables, identifying word-divisions, recognizing word order patterns in the target language, producing phonemes and blending them together into a word, etc. These subskills and many others are mastered individually through direct explanation, modeling and repetition. The mastery of each subskill is then

measured by means of a discrete-point test before moving to the next.

In whole language classrooms, reading is taught by reading whole texts in which all reading subskills are integrated and fully accessible to the learner. Advocates of this approach hold that language must be kept whole when it is read and that teachers make reading difficult "by breaking whole (natural) language into bitesize abstract little pieces" (Goodman, 1986, p. 7). They also hold that the ability to read evolves naturally out of students' experiences in much the same way that oral language develops.

Opponents of the skills-based approach to teaching reading claim that fragmenting written language destroys or distorts meaning which is the ultimate goal of reading instruction (Anderson, 1984). They add that this approach is boring and may produce students who are bored and turned off to reading (Freeman and Freeman, 1992). Goodman, (1974) goes so far as to say, "Accuracy, correctly naming or identifying each word or word part in a graphic sequence, is not necessary for effective reading since the reader can get the meaning without accurate word identification…. Furthermore, readers who strive for accuracy are likely to be

inefficient" (p. 826). Along the same line of thought, Smith, (1992) asserts that "the worst readers are those who try to sound out unfamiliar words according to the rules of phonics" (p.438).

On the other hand, opponents of the whole-language approach claim that focusing on whole language ignores decoding, which is central to reading comprehension. Adams (1990), for example, considers decoding just like the gasoline for the car. She adds that without gas, the car cannot run, and without decoding, there is no reading comprehension. Eskey (1989) adds that even guessing at meaning is not a substitute for accurate decoding. Yorio (1971) asserts that accurate decoding is especially important to foreign language reading because "the [FL] reader's knowledge is not like that of the native speaker; the guessing or predicting ability necessary to pick up cues is hindered by the imperfect knowledge of the language" (p. 108). In support of the view that decoding is essential to reading comprehension, Eldredge (1995) states:

> **Individuals who are fluent decoders . . . generally comprehend written text better than those who are poor at decoding. In fact, inadequate decoding seems**

> **to be a hallmark of poor readers (Cartnine, Cartnine, and Gertsen, 1984, Lesgold and Curtis, 1981). Good decoders find it easier to comprehend written text than poor decoders simply because they have less difficulty in translating print into language. (p. 19)**

Gough and Juel (1991) express the same point saying:

> **Poor decoding skill leads to little reading and little opportunity to increase one's basic vocabulary and knowledge, leaving a shaky foundation for later reading comprehension. (p. 55)**

Mason *et al*. (1991) also emphasize that decoding is central to reading comprehension in this way:

> **Skilled readers have the ability to identify words fluently and effortlessly .... The process of identifying words becomes subservient to text meaning and overall understanding .... Clearly, proficiency in word identification is central to the reading act. (p. 722)**

Research has also shown that poor decoders express a dislike for reading and read considerably less than the good decoders both in and out of school (Juel, 1988); and that

there is a high correlation between decoding skills and reading comprehension (e.g., Boger, 1987; Lesgold and Resnick, 1982; Lesgold *et al*., 1985; Perfetti, 1985).

In light of the previously-mentioned deficiencies of both the skills-based approach and the whole-language approach to teaching reading, it seems that both approaches are complementary, with one's strength being the other's weakness, and vice versa. It also seems that it would be unreasonable to use one of them to the exclusion of the other.

Therefore, the author calls for a comprehensive approach that emphasizes both skills and meaning. That is, an approach in which skills and meaning operate as complements rather than substitutes for each other. According to this approach, any reading lesson should move from skills to meaning as follows:

(1) *Presentation of reading skills*. In this step, the teacher explains some new vocabulary, a new structure and a phonics rule. Such skills should be selected from the dialogue or passage students are going to read.

(2) *Guided reading*. In this step, students read a dialogue or passage. While reading, and under the guidance of their teacher, they focus on the meanings of the

language items explained to them in step one. They also guess the meanings of other language items from the context.

(3) *Independent reading*. In this step, each student independently reads a whole text which is compatible with her/his language competence. After that, s/he answers comprehension questions and discusses what s/he has read with other students.

In any reading lesson, the teacher should move through all the previously-mentioned steps at the preparatory (pre-intermediate) level. Accordingly, the materials utilized in these steps should be adapted to suit the students' proficiency level.

10.3 Summary of research on reading instruction

A review of research on reading instruction showed that although the skills-based approach and the whole-language approach have contrasting views, both have been valued by researchers as useful instructional approaches for developing reading comprehension. Some studies obtained positive results with the skills-based approach. These studies examined the mastery of certain subskills and their effect on reading achievement or comprehension. The results of such

studies revealed that: (1) Training in phonemic awareness improved students' reading ability (e.g., Bradley and Bryant, 1983; Lundberg *et al*., 1988; Olofsson and Lundberg, 1985; Treiman and Baron, 1983; Vellutino and Scanlon, 1987); (2) Explicit teaching of letter-sound correspondences facilitated reading acquisition (e.g., Anderson *et al*., 1985; Williams, 1985); (3) Instruction in spelling had a strong positive effect on measures of beginning reading (e.g., Bradley, 1988; Bradley and Bryant, 1985; Uhry, 1989); (4) Vocabulary instruction improved reading comprehension (e.g., Cziko, 1980; Davis, 1989; McDaniel and Pressley, 1986); (5) Direct teaching of sentence combining improved reading comprehension (e.g., McAfee, 1981); (6) Teaching students about text structure improved their reading comprehension (e.g., Armbruster *et al*., 1987; Carrell, 1985; Idol and Croll, 1987); (7) Inference training improved reading comprehension (e.g., Hansen, 1981; Hansen and Pearson, 1983).

A second group of studies reported that the whole-language approach was effective in improving reading comprehension (e.g., Azwell, 1990; Crawford, 1995; Otero, 1993; Stasko, 1991; Stice and Bertrand, 1989).

A third group of studies revealed that the skills-based approach and the whole language approach resulted in an equivalent statistical effect on reading comprehension (e.g., Bitner, 1992; Cirulli, 1995; Ezell, 1995; Holland and Hall, 1989; Koch, 1993; Mercer, 1992; Wilson, 1998).

Viewed collectively, the above results provide indirect evidence for the position that a combination of the skills-based approach and the whole-language approach to teaching reading comprehension can meet the needs of students of all reading abilities and result in superior reading gains. It is also clear that the above results suggest that both skills and meaning are necessarily equal to reading comprehension. In this regard, Stahl and Miller (1989) suggest that the whole-language approach is more effective for teaching the functional aspects of reading such as print concepts, whereas direct instruction is better at helping students master word recognition skills.

Direct support for the comprehensive approach to teaching reading comprehension comes from many practitioners and researchers all over the world (e.g., Adams, 1990; Batjes and Brown, 1997; California Department of Education, 1987; Morrow, 1996; Pressley, 1988; Pressley and Rankin, 1994).

After reviewing several research studies in the area of reading, Adams (1990), for example, came to the conclusion that "approaches in which systematic code instruction is included along with meaningful connected reading result in superior reading achievement overall" (p. 578).

10.4 Self-checks

1. **Do you think that less competent readers can self-regulate their reading strategies to remediate comprehension failures? Why? Why not?**
2. **Take any piece of reading material from an EFL textbook and develop a plan of how you can teach it using the comprehensive approach procedure. Teach this plan to one of your classes and find out how interesting and/or useful it is.**
3. **Interview some of your students to know their attitudes towards the comprehensive approach to teaching reading. Write a statement that details their attitudes.**

Chapter Eleven

Writing

11.0 What is writing?

The skills-based approach views writing as a collection of separate skills, including letter formation, spelling, punctuation, grammar, organization, and the like. This approach also views writing as a product-oriented task. In this respect, McLaughlin *et al.* (1983) state that writing, like many other complex tasks, requires "learners organize a set of related subtasks and their components" (p. 42). In contrast, the whole-language approach views writing as a meaning-making process which is governed by purpose and audience rather than by compositional rules.

From the author's point of view, a thorough definition of writing should involve both skills and meaning. This is precisely the perspective taken by Krashen (1984) who states:

> **Writing competence is necessary, but is not sufficient. Writers who are competent, who have acquired the code, may still be unable to display their competence because of inefficient composing processes. Efficient**

composing processes, writing "performance," can be developed via sheer practice as well as instruction. (p. 28)

11.1 The importance of writing

In the area of EFL, writing has many uses and functions. To begin with, the ability to write acceptable scientific English is essential for post-graduate students who must write their dissertations in English. Moreover, writing EFL allows for communication to large numbers of people all over the world. It also provides students with physical evidence of their achievement. This in turn helps them to determine what they know and what they don't know. As Irmscher (1979) notes, "In our minds, we can fool ourselves. Not on paper. If no thought is in our minds, nothing comes out. Mental fuzziness translates into words only as fuzziness or meaninglessness" (p. 20).

Writing can also enhance students' thinking skills. As Irmscher (1979) notes, "Writing stimulates thinking, chiefly because it forces us to concentrate and organize. Talking does, too, but writing allows more time for introspection and deliberation" (loc. cit.).

Additionally, writing can enhance students' vocabulary, spelling, and grammar. Finally, writing skills are often needed for formal and informal testing.

11.2 The teaching and learning of writing

The skills-oriented teachers teach writing in fragmented pieces with the assumption that students cannot compose until they master the subskills that stem from writing. These subskills are taught explicitly through the use of techniques such as the following:

(1) Copying model compositions;

(2) Organizing a set of disorganized notes into topic areas with topic sentences and secondary points;

(3) Rearranging scrambled sentences to make up a paragraph;

(4) Predicting the method(s) of developing a topic sentence;

(5) Analyzing a passage with the help of questions such as the following:

-Which sentence states the main idea?

-What sentences directly support the main idea?

-What method did the writer use to develop the main idea?

(6) Filling in the missing connectives in a composition;

(7) Filling in the missing words or sentences in a composition;

(8) Combining a set of sentences to make up a composition;

(9) Writing topic sentences to given paragraphs;

(10) Reading a passage and answering the questions about it in complete sentences to make up a paragraph;

(11) Making a summary of a reading or listening passage using one's own words as far as possible;

(12) Rewriting a passage from another person's point of view;

(13) Changing a narrative into a dialog;

(14) Changing a dialog into a narrative.

The whole language teachers teach writing by immersing students in the process of writing. In whole language classrooms, students write whole compositions and share them with the teacher or other people from the start (Reutzel and Hollingsworth, 1988). The following techniques are consistent with the whole-language perspective:

(1) Dialogue journal writing

Dialogue journal is a long-term written conversation between a student and the teacher in or out of classroom. Students write on any topic and the teacher writes back to each student, making comments and offering opinions (Peyton and Reed, 1990).

Teachers do not correct journals in the traditional sense. Rather they respond by asking questions and commenting on the content (Jenkinson, 1988). Such responses drive the process and endow the activity with meaning (Hennings, 1992).

Atwell (1987) argues that the dialogue journal partner does not have to be the teacher and that students may be paired with each other. Rather than leaving dialogue journal topics completely open-ended, Walworth (1990) suggests that the teacher can use it to focus the discussion on a certain topic.

In classes with word processors that are easily accessible to all students, Peyton and Reed (1990) suggest that the journal may be on a disk passed back and forth and if schools have access to electronic mail, messages can be sent without the exchange of disks. Naiman (1988) adds that with access to computer networks, students can keep dialogue journals with other students in different parts of the world.

The benefits of dialogue journal writing in general include individualizing the teaching of writing, using writing and reading for real communication, making students more process-oriented, bridging the gap between speaking and

writing, developing students' awareness of the real purposes of reading and writing, helping students become more relaxed as writers, promoting autonomous learning, improving vocabulary and punctuation skills, raising self-confidence, helping students become more fluent writers, and increasing opportunities for interaction between students and teachers and among students themselves (Hamayan, 1989; Peyton, 1990; Porter *et al*., 1990; Steffensen, 1988; Wham and Lenski, 1994).

In addition to the above benefits, electronic dialogue journals enable students to send in their journals at any time of day or night and the respondent to answer at his/her convenience (Warschauer *et al*., 2000). Moreover, in a study on the difference between the discourse in dialogue journals written on paper and those sent via e-mail, Wang (1993) found that ESL students who used e-mail wrote more text, asked more questions, and used more language functions than students who wrote on paper.

According to the author's point of view, the use of dialogue journals with EFL students should move from correspondence between student and teacher to

correspondence among students themselves, and from controlled to open-ended topics.

(2) Letter writing

Letter writing is another technique for immersing students in writing to a real audience for a real purpose. Students use this technique when they want to communicate through writing with someone inside or outside the school. After writing their letters, students deliver or mail them for hope that they will be answered. Respondents accept students' letters and comment on meaning rather than on form.

The most important reason for using letter writing is that students enjoy writing and receiving letters (Hall, 1994). Another reason is that descriptive, expository, persuasive, expressive, and narrative forms of writing can be practiced in letters, whether intended for real use or not (Temple and Gillet, 1984).

In an effort to understand young children's abilities as letter writers, Hall, Robinson, and Grawford (1991) investigated whether or not very young native English-speaking children could sustain a letter-writing dialogue. Hall and Crawford wrote on an individual basis to all children in a class taught

by Robinson. The researchers found that children, from the beginning, functioned totally efficiently and appropriately as correspondents. As the exchanges progressed, children showed that they could generate novel topics, sustain topics, and when appropriate, close topics. Droge (1995) also found that letter dialogue writing improved students' writing skills as well as their self-esteem.

(3) Process writing

Heald-Taylor (1994), in her book, *Whole Language Strategies for ESL Students,* describes process writing in the following way:

> **Process writing is an approach which encourages ESL youngsters [and adults] to communicate their own written messages while simultaneously developing their literacy skills ... rather than delaying involvement in the writing process, as advocated in the past, until students have perfected their abilities in handwriting, reading, phonics, spelling, grammar, and punctuation. In process writing the communication of the message is paramount and therefore the developing, but**

inaccurate, attempts at handwriting, spelling and grammar are accepted.

Process writing, as described above, can improve students' writing because it encourages them to write and to continue writing whatever their ability level.

Process writing also refers to the process a writer engages in when constructing meaning. This process can be divided into three major stages: pre-writing, writing and post-writing. The pre-writing stage involves planning, outlining, brainstorming, gathering information, etc. The writing stage involves the actual wording and structuring of the information into written discourse. The post-writing stage involves proofreading, editing, publishing, etc. For additional coverage of process writing, see Barnett (1989), Flower and Hayes (1981), Hall (1993), Krashen (1984), Reid (1988), and Zamel (1983).

Data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) in writing showed that "teachers' encouragement of ... process-related activities was strongly related to average writing proficiency" (Applebee *et al.*, 1994, p. 178).

The comprehensive approach holds that the process and product of writing are complementary and that a combination of both can boost writing proficiency above the levels that occur with either alone. In support of this view, Hairston (1982) states:

> **We cannot teach students to write by looking only at what they have written. We must also understand how the product came into being, and why it assumed the form that it did. We have to understand what goes on during the act of writing. (p. 84)**

Opponents of the skills-based approach claim that the teaching of writing subskills is often uninteresting. As Rose (1982) points out, "Part of the problem in teaching children the mechanics of writing is that the teaching is often uninteresting. Teachers themselves may have a distaste for the elements of grammar and punctuation" (p. 384). Such opponents add that an overemphasis on writing conventions may get in the way of communicating meaning. As Newman (1985) puts it:

> **An overemphasis on accurate spelling, punctuation, and neat handwriting can actually produce a situation in which children come to see the conventions of writing as more important than the meaning they are trying to convey. (p. 28)**

On the other hand, opponents of the whole-language approach claim that students cannot convey meaning without writing conventions.

From the foregoing, it is clear that just like the skills-based approach, the whole-language approach is necessary, but not sufficient for writing acquisition. Therefore, the comprehensive approach suggests the following three basic steps as a procedure for teaching writing to foreign language students:

(1) *Presentation of writing skills*. In this step, the teacher explains some vocabulary, a grammatical rule, a punctuation rule and a spelling rule. Such skills should provide the basis for the other two steps.

(2) *Guided writing*. In this step, students read a model composition. Then, under the guidance of their teacher, they use the skills explained to them in step one as well as the skills they acquired by themselves in

summarizing this model composition or changing it from a narrative to a dialog or vice versa.

(3) *Independent writing*. In this step, each student independently writes a whole composition on a self-selected topic using the writing process. S/he then discusses what s/he has written with other students in the class.

11.3 Summary of research on writing instruction

A review of research on writing instruction showed that although the skills-based approach and the whole-language approach have contrasting views, both have been valued by researchers as useful instructional approaches for developing writing. Some studies obtained positive results with the skills-based approach. These studies examined the mastery of certain subskills and their effect on writing. The results of such studies revealed that: (1) Explicit story grammar instruction improved the narrative writing of average and below average students (e.g., EL-Koumy, 1999; Fitzgerald and Teasley, 1986; Gambrell and Chasen, 1991; Gordon and Braun, 1982, 1983; Leaman, 1993); (2) Explicit instruction in expository text structures had a positive effect on the quality of students' expository writing (e.g., Hiebert *et al*., 1983; Murray, 1993; Taylor and Beach, 1984); (3) Explicit teaching

of formal grammar improved the quality of students' writing (e.g., Govindasamy, 1995; Melendez, 1993; Neulieb and Brosnahan, 1987; Yeung, 1993); (4) Direct teaching of sentence combining improved the quality of students' writing (e.g., Abdan, 1981; Combs, 1976; Cooper, 1981).

A second body of studies revealed that the whole-language approach improved students' writing (e.g., Agnew, 1995; Crawford, 1995; Cress, 1990; Loshbaugh, 1993; Lucas, 1988; Maguire, 1992; McLaughlin, 1994; Roberts, 1991).

A third body of studies revealed that the two instructional approaches resulted in an equivalent statistical effect on students' writing (e.g., Adair-Hauck, 1994; Shearer, 1992).

The research reviewed above provides indirect evidence that a combination of both the skills-based approach and the whole-language approach can boost students' writing above the levels that occur with either alone.

Direct support of the comprehensive approach to teaching writing comes from studies done by El-Koumy (2005), Jones (1995), and Nagle (1989).

El-Koumy (2005) compared the effects of the whole language approach versus the skills-based approach on the quantity and quality of EAP students' writing. He found that the whole language approach was effective for developing only the quantity of writing, whereas the skills-based approach was effective for developing only the quality of writing. This suggests that both the skills-based approach and the whole language approach are necessarily equal to writing.

Jones (1995) compared the effects of an eclectic approach versus a whole-language approach on the writing skills of first grade students. She found that the eclectic approach resulted in statistically significant writing skills' scores than the whole-language approach.

Nagle (1989) compared the stories written by students in five first grade classes being taught by a whole language/process approach, a traditional approach, and a combination of both. She found that "the mean scores were consistently higher in classes with teachers that integrated the holistic and traditional teaching methods as compared to classes being taught in a more holistic or a more traditional setting" (p. 72).

11.4 Self-checks

1. **Writing EFL has many uses and functions. Discuss.**
2. **Overreliance on either the skills-based approach or the whole-language approach can cause writing difficulties for foreign language learners. Discuss.**
3. **Studies done in the area of writing support the author's comprehensive approach. Discuss.**

Part Four

==========

Integrating Main Language Skills with Each Other

==========

Chapter Twelve

Integrating Listening with Speaking

12.1 Introduction

Influenced by the neuropsychologists who hold that comprehension is located in one area of the brain and production in another, the skill-building theorists (e.g., Bates *et al*., 1988; Byrnes, 1984; Nord, 1980; Snyder *et al*., 1981; Wipf, 1984)) claim that listening and speaking are independent behaviors. They further claim that the teaching of listening should precede the teaching of speaking. As Byrnes (1984) points out, "Listening comprehension precedes production in all cases of language learning, and there can be no production unless linguistic input was provided and became comprehensible intake for a listener" (pp. 318-319). On the other hand, whole language proponents, among other language educators, claim that listening and speaking are interdependent (e.g., Cutler, 1987; Mackay *et al*., 1987; Temple and Gillet, 1984). They further claim that both skills (listening and speaking) should be taught simultaneously. As Mackay *et al*. (1987) put it:

> **Language perception and production are intimately related and difficult to separate operationally. Every speaker is simultaneously a listener, and every listener is at least potentially a speaker. From an evolutionary perspective as well, language perception and production are virtually inseparable: the capacities for perceiving and producing speech could only have evolved simultaneously.... (p. 2)**

Cutler (1987) supports the same view saying:

> **Speech production is constrained at all levels by the demands of speech perception...the production of an utterance is constrained by factors which have more to do with the nature of the listener's perceptual process than with the nature of the production process itself. (p. 23)**

Temple and Gillet (1984) also emphasize the close relationship between listening and speaking in this way:

> **Listening cannot be separated from the expressive aspects of oral communication. It is impossible to**

> **"teach listening" separately from speaking, or to set aside a portion of the instructional time for listening instruction and ignore it the rest of the time. Listening is as much a part of group discussions, dramatic play, or puppetry, for example, as the dialogues and actions created. When children develop their communicative powers they also develop their ability to listen appreciately and receptively. (p. 70)**

The comprehensive approach holds that listening and speaking are related in some aspects but different in others. They are related in that both are aspects of oral communication. They are different in that listening is meaning-abstracting while speaking is meaning-generating. Furthermore, unlike listeners, speakers can control the scope and difficulty of utterances. Therefore, the teacher should move towards the integration of both skills after focusing on each skill's unique characteristics.

12.2 Summary of research on listening-speaking relationship

A review of research on the relationship between listening and speaking revealed that some studies support the view that the two skills are independent behaviors (e.g., Holtz, 1994; Huttenlocher, 1974; Rescorla, 1980); whereas other studies offer support for the view that the same skills are interdependent (e.g., Brown *et al*., 1988, cited in Anderson and Lynch, 1988; Smolak, 1982).

The research reviewed above provides indirect support for the author's view that listening and speaking are related in some aspects but different in others. Therefore, the comprehensive approach holds that the differences between listening and speaking need to be addressed before stressing the commonalties between them.

12.3 Classroom activities for integrating listening with speaking

The activities for integrating listening with speaking, according to the comprehensive approach, should move from teacher-student to student-student interaction as students

advance in a listening/speaking lesson in particular and the target language in general.

12.3.1 Teacher-student interaction

The teacher-student interaction is based on the teacher's superior knowledge. This superiority, however, allows students to share responsibility for producing a complete performance (Comeau, 1987). In interactions of this kind, teachers help students to participate through the use of scaffolds. These scaffolds are temporary supports that teachers provide for students to stimulate their language development to higher levels (Eldredge, 1995; Rosenshine and Guenther, 1992; Scarcella and Oxford, 1992).

Teacher questions have been the most widely used technique for scaffolding language learning. In this respect, Daly *et al.* (1994) point out that in classroom interactions, teacher questions take up a significant portion. However, Chaudron (1988) claims that teachers' questions may be either helpful or inhibiting of interaction.

To encourage student interaction, Udall and Daniels (1991) suggest that teachers' questions should be open-ended and wait time should be at least ten seconds. Carlsen (1991) adds

that teachers should ask challenging questions rather than rote memory ones to encourage students to take part in classroom interactions.

Nunan (1989) notes that "in contrast with interactions in the world outside, classroom interaction is characterized by the use of display questions to the almost total exclusion of referential questions" (p. 29). However, van Lier (1988) claims that the distinction between instructional questions and conversational ones is not their referential or display nature, but their eliciting nature. He wrote:

> **Such [display] questions have the professed aim of providing comprehensible input, and of encouraging 'early production'. I suggest that, by and large, what gives such question series their instructional, typically L2-classroom character is not so much that they are display rather than referential, but that they are made with the aim of eliciting language from the learners. (p. 222)**

According to the comprehensive approach, the teacher should move from display to referential questions and from closed questions to open-ended ones in every lesson. The

comprehensive approach also suggests that teacher scaffolds should be gradually withdrawn, as students progress in any lesson in particular and the target language in general to allow them to interact with each other.

12.3.2 Student-student interaction

Student-student interaction, in which students learn with and from each other, can play an important role in developing both listening and speaking. This type of interaction can be carried out by involving students in cooperative learning. Referring to Long and Porter (1985) and McGroary (1988), Ford (1991) outlines the advantages of cooperative learning in the following way:

> **Cooperative learning provides students with greater opportunities to: 1) interact with each other, 2) negotiate for meaning, 3) work in a variety of projects that are of interest to them, 4) participate in real-world communicative activities more frequently than in traditional teacher-fronted classrooms....(p. 45)**

Additional advantages of cooperative learning include more student talk, more varied talk, increased amount of

comprehensible input, decreased prejudice, increased respect for others, more relaxed atmosphere, greater motivation, and higher self-esteem (Christison, 1990; Olsen and Kagan, 1992).

In order for student-student interaction to be effective, educators suggest that teachers should pay careful attention to the following factors:

12.3.2.1 Group composition

There has been considerable discussion surrounding the question of what constitutes a successful group. Some educators (e.g., Barr *et al*., 1995; Hiebert, 1983; Mathes and Fuchs, 1994; Topping, 1998) suggest that students should be grouped by their ability levels.

The effects of ability grouping on learning efficiency and interaction were examined in many studies. Varonis and Gass (1983, cited in Long and Porter, 1985) found that most negotiation of meaning occurred when learners were of different language backgrounds and of different proficiency levels.

Nation (1985) found that learners in a homogeneous, low-proficiency group had more equal spoken participation than learners in mixed groups.

Porter (1986) found that ESL learners got more and better-quality input from advanced learners than from intermediates, suggesting an advantage for practice with a higher-level partner from the perspective of quality and quantity of input. Based on this finding, she recommends that teachers should pair students of differing proficiency levels in the ESL classroom.

Hooper and Hannafin (1988) found that heterogeneous grouping increased the achievement of low-ability students by approximately 50% compared to their homogeneously grouped peers. In contrast, homogeneous grouping increased the achievement of high-ability students by approximately 12% compared to their heterogeneously grouped counterparts.

In another study, Hooper and Hannafin (1991) investigated the effects of cooperative group composition and student ability on interaction, instructional efficiency, and achievement during computer-based instruction. The results

showed that: (1) low-ability students interacted more in heterogeneous than in homogeneous groups; (2) high-ability students completed the instruction more efficiently in homogeneous than heterogeneous groups; and (3) cooperation was significantly related to achievement for heterogeneous ability groups, but not for either homogeneous high- or low-ability students.

However, ability grouping, as McGreal (1989) states, can cause problems when inferior students find out who they are. Abadzi (1984) asserts that ability grouping hurts lower ranking students. Oakes (1985) also contends that students in the lower track are usually seen by others as dumb and also see themselves in this way.

In support of the social consequences of ability grouping, Ireson and Hallam (2002) found that derogatory terms were often used to refer to lower ability pupils and that these terms had a negative effect on their self-esteem, self-concept and their emotional responses to school.

Due to the negative social consequences of ability grouping, some educators (e.g., Bauder and Milman, 1990; Klavas, 1993; Neely and Alm, 1993; Pankratius, 1997) suggest that

students should be grouped by their learning style. In the learning style literature, some theoreticians (e.g., Dunn and Dunn, 1993, 1999) suggest that students should be homogeneously grouped by their own preferred learning style. These theoreticians hold that learning style homogeneity allows students to learn most effectively, efficiently, easily, and with greatest enjoyment. However, such a grouping technique may lead to a narrow group focus and predispose groupthink.

Other learning style theoreticians (e.g., Bonham, 1989; Kathleen, 1993) suggest that students should be grouped heterogeneously. These theoreticians hold that learning style heterogeneity helps learners to expand the learning styles with which they do not feel comfortable and best fit the content. However, such a grouping technique may disrupt positive relations among group members which can, in turn, negatively affect their performance.

Unfortunately, no studies have sought to determine which one of these two types of learning style grouping better affects students' oral language. Research in this area was only concerned with investigating the effects of matching/mismatching learning styles with teaching styles

and exploring the relationship between isolated learning styles and reading achievement or comprehension (e.g., Davey, 1990; Eitington, 1989; Rosa, 1991; Stiles, 1986).

In light of the foregoing discussion, the comprehensive approach holds that groups should be of mixed learning styles. Such a method of grouping would provide a richer pool of students who have varied knowledge and divergent thinking styles that help in promoting classroom interaction. In support of this view, many social psychologists agree that conflict among group members leads to higher quality decision making and better task performance.

12.3.2.2 Individual accountability

Many educators suggest that individual accountability promotes student-student interaction and helps avoid loafing by less active or less able students (Hooper *et al*., 1989; Jacobs, 1987). Such an individual accountability as Fandt *et al*. (1993) suggest, "can be created either by task structure, reward structure, or some combinations of the two" (p. 114). To ensure that each student is individually accountable to do his/her share of the group's work, Johnson and Johnson (1994) suggest the following ways to structure individual accountability:

(1) Keeping the size of the group small;

(2) Giving an individual test to each student;

(3) Examining students orally by calling on one student to present his/her group's work to the entire class;

(4) Recording the frequency with which each member contributes to the group's work;

(5) Assigning one student in each group the role of checker;

(6) Having each member teach what he/she learned to someone else.

12.3.2.3 Learning tasks

The tasks assigned to group members also influence their interaction with one another (van Lier, 1988). For group or peer involvement in interaction, some educators (e.g., King, 1989; Palincsar and Brown, 1988; Sadow, 1987) suggest the use of problem solving tasks to promote interaction and divergent thinking. In the same vein, Palincsar *et al.* (1990) suggest that open-ended problems provide greater opportunities for cooperation than do closed problems. Allen *et al.* (1996) add that the tasks assigned to groups should be complex enough for students to recognize the need to work together and to demonstrate thinking skills beyond simple knowledge and comprehension.

12.3.2.4 Group size

With respect to group size, there is a remarkable agreement that small groups have advantages over large groups. According to Johnson *et al.* (1984), small groups take less time to get organized. It's also very difficult to drop out of a small group (Kohn, 1987; Vermette, 1998). Also, learning in small groups, as Hertz-Lazarowitz *et al.* (1980) state, "provides for the acquisition of social skills needed for sustaining cooperative interaction" (p. 105).

In contrast, large groups, as Dansereau (1987) states, "are more likely to result in the formation of coalitions and passivity on the part of some students" (p. 618).

In support of small groups, studies done by Long and Bulgarella (1985) led them to conclude that

> **Interaction in small groups is desirable because it leads to clashes of points of view that encourage children's development of individuality, creativity, and ability to think. (p. 171)**

12.3.2.5 Assessing group and individuals work

In order to maximize student-student interaction in group work, the comprehensive approach holds that the teacher should assess group work as well as individual contributions to motivate students to focus on individual and group work and thereby develop in both areas. The comprehensive approach also holds that there is a need to assess both the process and product of group work.

Moreover, the comprehensive approach holds that each student in the group should self-assess what he/she learned from the members of the group and what other group members learned from him/her. This type of assessment motivates learners to participate actively in group interaction.

With regard to the teacher's role during student-student interactions, the comprehensive approach holds that the teacher should move among groups to facilitate difficulties and to assess individual contributions and the process of group work.

12.4 Self-checks

1. **Develop an oral lesson plan that moves from teacher-student to student-student interaction as noted in this chapter. Teach it to your students and discuss the results with your colleagues.**
2. **In one of your classrooms, assign students into high-, middle-, and low-ability groups and engage them in a collaborative oral activity. Note down the amount of conversational interaction generated in each of the three groups.**
3. **Interview some teachers to know their rationale for using or not using ability grouping in their teaching of English as a foreign language.**

Chapter Thirteen

Integrating Reading with Writing

13.1 Introduction

Influenced by the neuropsychologists who hold that comprehension is located in one area of the brain and production in another, advocates of the skills-based approach claim that reading and writing are parallel and independent aspects of language. That is, the two skills are linguistically and pedagogically different from each other. As Brown (1987) puts it:

> **In child language, both observational and research evidence point to the "superiority" of comprehension over production: children understand "more" than they actually produce. For instance, a child may understand a sentence with an embedded relative in it, but not be able to produce one. (pp. 26-27)**

Bialystock and Ryan (1985) express the same point of view in this way:

> **The primary difference between the two activities [reading and writing] is that writing depends on more detailed analyzed knowledge. The required degree of analyzed knowledge about sound-spelling relationships is greater when expressively spelling words than when receptively recognizing them. Similarly, vague notions of discourse structure may be adequate to interpret written texts but are decidedly inadequate to produce it. (pp. 224-225)**

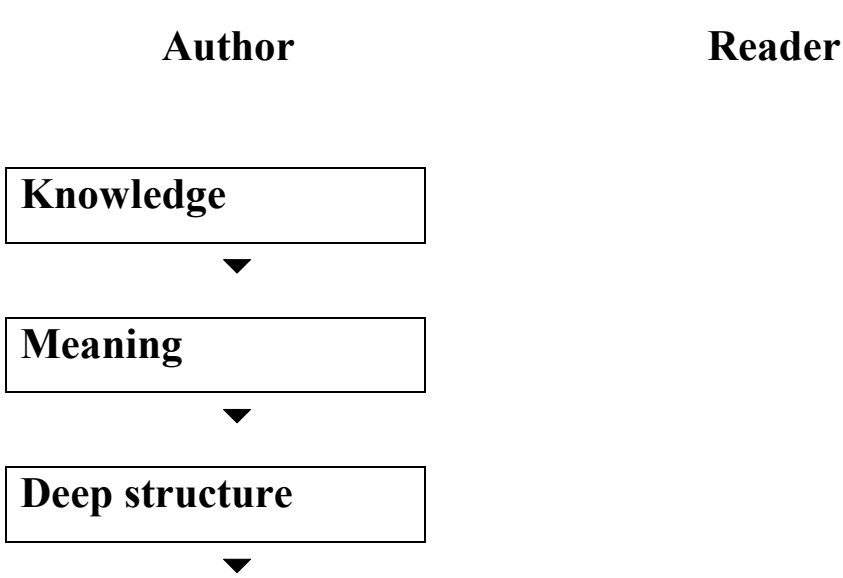
Brooks (1964) also emphasizes that reading and writing are different in this way:

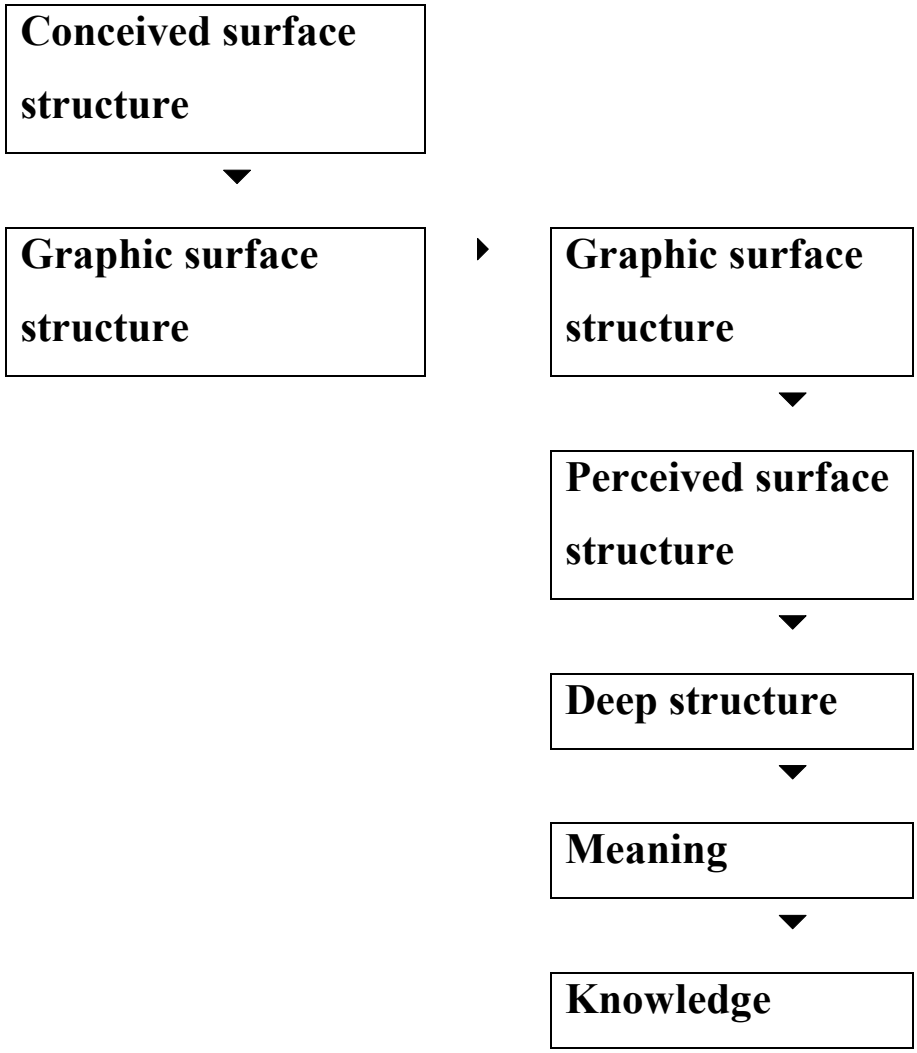
> **The receptive skill of reading is much more easily acquired and more easily retained than the productive skill of writing. But the learning of reading also has special characteristics that relate to its institutional or langue nature. The learner must know how to respond as a reader to writing of many different types, of many different degrees of difficulty, recorded at different times and in different places. Writing, on the contrary, like speaking, is a highly personal affair, in which the learner must respect all the mandatory features of the target**

> **language code as it appears when written, while at the same time being permitted and encouraged to exploit the volitional and creative aspects of the new language to the extent that his ability and his experience permit. (p. 167)**

In a similar vein, some educators claim that a writer and a reader of a text follow inverse cognitive processes (e.g., Beaugrande, 1979; Page, 1974; Yoos, 1979). More specifically, they claim that writers encode meaning, whereas readers decode it. Figure 1 represents Page's view in this point (p. 176).

Figure 1: Page's view of reading and writing





The previously-mentioned standpoint resulted in treating reading and writing as separate entities in the classrooms as well as in language arts curricula at all levels. Furthermore, most of the experimental studies related to these skills, as Reid (1993) states, "progressed so independently for the past twenty years" (p. 43).

On the other hand, advocates of the whole-language approach, among others, argue that both reading and writing are potentially equal and integrated. Some of them (e.g., Laflamme, 1997; Norris and Hoffman, 1993; Taylor, 1981) view the subskills of reading and writing as virtually the same. Figure 2, for example, represents Taylor's view (1981) in this point (pp. 30-31).

Figure 2: Taylor's subskills of reading and writing

Reading	Writing
Identifying the main idea	Formulating and phrasing the main idea
Finding support for the main idea	Supporting the main idea
Recognizing the sequence of sentences	Linking sentences to achieve coherence
Drawing inferences	Shaping inferences
Following organization of	Arranging ideas and

ideas and events	**events in the logical order**
Differentiating fact from opinion	**Supporting an opinion with facts**
Recognizing organizational patterns	**Using appropriate organizational patterns**
Drawing conclusions from ideas, stated or inferred	**Writing deductively**
Drawing conclusions from detail	**Writing inductively**
Detecting causal relationships	**Analyzing a causal chain**

In the same vein, Rosenblatt (1988) describes reading and writing as similar patterns of thinking, Singh (1989) views them as two aspects of the same activity, Flood and Lapp (1987) view them as mutually reinforcing interactive processes, and Fitzgerald (1989a) views them as two related thought processes in this way:

> **We write on the premises of the reader, i.e. writers learn that readers expect information to be sequenced in certain logical or commonly accepted ways, so writers goals for their texts take those reader expectations into account, and try to fashion their texts to meet the readers' expectations. (p. 42)**

Furthermore, Tierney and colleagues (1983, 1995) hold that both reading and writing activate schemata about the content and form of the topic which consequently influence what is understood or produced.

In line with the assumption that reading and writing are interdependent, some language teaching theoreticians assert that the teaching of reading involves the teaching of writing and vice versa. As Kenneth and Yetta Goodman (1983) note, "People not only learn to read by reading and write by writing but they also learn to read by writing and write by reading" (p. 592).

The comprehensive approach holds that there are differences and similarities between reading and writing. Unlike writing which is meaning-generating, reading is meaning-abstracting. On the other hand, readers and writers alike use a variety of

cognitive and metacognitive strategies in order to achieve their goals. Therefore, reading should be taught separately from writing at the beginning of foreign language learning to stress the unique properties of each skill. Then, both skills should be integrated at the intermediate-high level to stress the commonalties between them.

13.2 Summary of research on reading-writing relationship

A review of research on the relationship between reading and writing revealed that some studies support the view that the two skills are independent behaviors (e.g., Evans, 1979; Fuller, 1974; Perry, 1980; Siedow, 1973); whereas other studies offer support for the view that the two skills are interdependent (e.g., Acuna, 1986; Balkiewicz, 1992; D'Angelo, 1977; Flahive and Bailey, 1993; Hill, 1982; Holtz, 1988; Hulett, 1986; Kane, 1983; Popplewell, 1984).

Similarly, some studies showed that training in writing produced positive effects on reading (e.g., Denner *et al*., 1989; Donohue, 1985; Kelley, 1984; Zuckermann, 1987); whereas other studies indicated that writing instruction did not lead to improvement in reading (e.g., Frey, 1993).

In light of the experimental literature reviewed above, there is indirect evidence that there are differences and similarities between reading and writing. Direct support for the author's view comes from Webster and Ammon's study (1994) which revealed that there are some skills specific to reading and others common to both reading and writing.

13.3 Classroom activities for integrating reading with writing

Reading-writing integration can be implemented in the EFL classroom through the following activities:

(1) Reading-to-write activities. Such activities can be divided into the following three stages:

(a) Pre-reading activities, e.g.,

Asking students to write their own experiences about the theme of the text before they read it;

(b) While-reading activities, e.g.,

Asking students to take notes while reading;

(c) Post-reading activities, e.g.,

Asking students to write summaries, syntheses and critiques about what they have read.

(2) Writing-to-read activities. Such activities can be divided into the following three stages:

(a) Pre-writing activities, e.g.,

Asking students to read materials that teach various organizational patterns before writing;

(b) While-writing activities, e.g.,

Asking students to pause to scan and read during writing;

(c) Post-writing activities, e.g.,

Asking students to read each other's writing and respond to it.

13.4 Self-checks

1. Develop a lesson plan that integrates reading with writing.
2. The position taken by the author is that the separation of reading and writing is necessary in the early stages of foreign language learning. Do you agree with him? Why? Why not?
3. Do you think that writing and reading develop reciprocally and directly affect each other? Why? Why not?

Chapter Fourteen

Integrating Speaking with Writing

14.1 Introduction

Advocates of the skills-based approach take the position that speaking and writing are completely different. As Lakoff (1982) puts it:

> **It is generally acknowledged that written and oral communication involve very different kinds of strategies: what works orally does not work in print, and vice versa. We know the reasons for this discrepancy, at least in part: oral communication works through the assumption immediacy, or spontaneity; writing on the other hand is planned, organized, and non-spontaneous. (p. 239)**

Chafe (1985) emphasizes that the speaking and writing are different in this way:

> **The fact that writing is a slow, deliberate, editable process, whereas speaking is done on the fly leads to a difference that I called the integrated quality of**

> **written language as opposed to the fragmented quality of spoken. The fact that writing is a lonely activity whereas speaking typically takes place in an environment of social interaction causes written language to have a detached quality that contrasts with the involvement of spoken language. (p. 105)**

Oxford (1993) also emphasizes the same point of view in this way:

> **Ordinary speech, unlike the written word, contains many ungrammatical, reduced, or incomplete forms. It also contains hesitations, false starts, repetitions, fillers, and pauses, all of which make up 30-50% of any conversation (Oxford, 1990). (p. 206)**

For other differences between spoken and written language, see Graesser *et al.* (1991), Horowitz and Samuels (1987), Kamhi and Catts (1989), Mazzie (1987), and Rader (1982).

The above position resulted in treating speaking and writing as separate entities in the classroom as well as in language arts curricula.

On the other hand, advocates of the whole-language approach, among other language theoreticians, assume that speaking and writing are equal and integrated (e.g., Goodman, 1986; Johnson, 1989; Myers, 1987). One reason for this assumption is that both oral and written language come from the same source which is one's communicative competence. A second reason is that writing and speaking are productive modes of the language and employ many of the same faculties (Larson and Jones, 1983). A third reason, as Magnan (1985) notes, is that "writing is sometimes the only possible form for speech ... [and] speech is the most feasible form for writing'' (p. 117). A final reason is that writers frequently engage in inner speech (Klein, 1977).

In line with the previously-cited assumption, some language teaching theoreticians assert that speaking and writing should be taught simultaneously and that involvement in the meaningful and communicative use of language is central for the development of both skills.

The comprehensive approach holds that although speaking and writing are different in some aspects, they share others. They are different in that a speaker uses intonation, stress patterns, and facial expressions to convey information,

whereas a writer conveys information through writing conventions. In other words, the speaker uses the sound (phonemic) system, whereas the writer uses the print (graphemic) system. They are similar in that both speakers and writers create meaning. Therefore, the author's position is that the unique properties of each skill should be taught first before focusing on the elements common to both.

14.2 Summary of research on speaking-writing relationship

Research on the speaking-writing relationship yielded two sets of findings. One set showed that speaking and writing are different forms and/or not correlated (e.g., Hildyard and Hidi, 1985; Lee, 1991; Mazzie, 1987; Redeker, 1984; Sweeney, 1993).

The other set showed that speaking and writing are similar forms and/or correlated (e.g., Abu-Humos, 1993; Cooper, 1982; Negm, 1995; Tannen, 1982a and b).

The research reviewed in this chapter provides indirect support for the author's position that there are similarities and differences between speaking and writing.

14.3 Classroom activities for integrating speaking with writing

Speaking-writing integration can be implemented in the EFL classroom through many activities. Among these activities are the following:

(1) Asking students to write down sentences in the way they are spoken;

(2) Asking students to discuss the topic they are going to write about;

(3) Asking students to engage in self-dialogue while writing;

(4) Asking students to discuss what they have written;

(5) Asking students to orally narrate the stories they have written;

(6) Giving writing assignments in which students can manipulate features of voice such as stories, dialogues, and letters;

(7) Using individual conferences in which the teacher converses with an individual student at a time during or after writing to diagnose his/her problems in writing and to suggest solutions to these problems;

(8) Using peer/group conferences in which students converse with one another during and/or after writing to share writing strategies, ideas, and experiences;

(9) Asking students to write questions for an interview;

(10) Asking students to conduct interviews with others and to put these interviews in writing.

14.4 Self-checks

1. Do you think that students should be aware of the differences between written and spoken discourse? Why? Why not?
2. Compare the spoken and written versions of a certain content. Note down the similarities and differences between them.
3. The author thinks that writing and speaking are partially independent from each other. Do you agree with him? Why? Why not?

Chapter Fifteen

Integrating Listening with Reading

15.1 Introduction

Advocates of the skills-based approach (e.g., Anderson and Lapp, 1979; Hildyard and Olson, 1982; Leu, 1982; Rubin, 1980) take the position that listening and reading are independent and parallel skills. They further claim that listening comprehension ordinarily precedes reading comprehension.

In Contrast, advocates of the whole-language approach, among other language teaching theorists, take the position that reading and listening are interrelated (e.g., Bromley, 1988; Carlisle, 1991; Omanson *et al*., 1984; Sticht and James, 1984). In support of this unitary comprehension view, Brassard (1970) a long time ago stated:

> **Listening and reading obviously are interrelated communication skills. They are similar in that the receiver relies on his background experience and**

> **vocabulary to interpret stimuli presented through oral and written channels. (p. 1)**

The comprehensive approach holds that while there are areas for interrelating instruction in listening and reading, each embodies some subskills which must be learned and developed separately. The two skills are related in that listeners and readers use their own language background and experience to understand the message. They are also related in that both are concerned with the intake half of the communication process and manifest the same set of cognitive processes. They are different in that: (1) listening requires processing aural signals, while reading requires processing visual signals, (2) the listener must cope with verbal and nonverbal messages, whereas the reader must cope with verbal messages alone (Oxford, 1993; Rost, 1992), (3) readers, unlike listeners, are capable of control over the input, and can dwell upon parts of the text, review others, and slow down when the information is difficult (McClelland, 1987), (4) the reader's messages are generally linear, tightly structured, and presented in full sentences, while the listener's messages are often non-linear, loosely structured, and redundant (Lundsteen, 1979). Supporting the comprehensive view, Rubin (1982) states:

> **Although there are many common factors involved in the decoding of reading and listening—which would account for the relationship between the two areas—listening and reading are, nonetheless, separated by unique factors. (p. 67)**

Supporting the same view, Danks and End (1987) state:

> **So, to the question, "Are listening and reading processes the same or different," the answer is, "Both." Listening and reading are the same in that both are language comprehension processes that have available to them the same set of strategies to accomplish the task of comprehension. They differ to the extent that the cognitive demands imposed by text characteristics, situational factors, and cognitive skills available to the comprehender result in different processing strategies being heuristic. (p. 291)**

With the previously-mentioned views in mind, the author claims that listening and reading should be taught separately at the beginning of learning English as a foreign language to

develop the properties specific to each skill. Then, the teacher can move towards the integration and unification of the two skills to develop the properties common to both. In doing so, the comprehensive approach stresses the shared qualities as well as the uniqueness of each skill.

15.2 Summary of research on listening-reading relationship

In reviewing the studies relevant to the area of the listening-reading relationship, the author found that some studies revealed that listening and reading are different forms and/or not correlated (e.g., Brown and Hayes, 1985; Curd, 1984; Levesque, 1989; Lund, 1991; Royer *et al*., 1986, 1990); whereas other studies indicated that the two skills are similar and/or correlated (e.g., Berger, 1978; Carr *et al*., 1985; Favreau and Segalowitz, 1983; Nuwash, 1997; Travis, 1983).

Similarly, some studies showed that training in listening improved reading skills (e.g., Brooks, 1986, 1990; Lemons and Moore, 1982; Seaton and Wielan, 1980); whereas other studies did not show significant gains in reading comprehension after training in listening (e.g., Beck, 1985; Miller, 1988; Weisenbach, 1989).

Viewed collectively, the experimental literature reviewed above provides indirect support for the view that there are differences and similarities between listening and reading.

Direct support for the comprehensive approach comes from studies which showed that listening and reading are equivalent for specific proficiency levels, but not for others (Brown and Hayes, 1985; Miller and Smith, 1990). This, in turn, suggests the use of the comprehensive approach which stresses the differences between listening and reading before integrating them at a higher level.

15.3 Classroom activities for integrating listening with reading

Listening-reading integration can be implemented in the EFL classroom through many activities. Among these activities are the following:

(1) Having students listen to a model reading of what they are going to read;

(2) Having students read aloud and listen to themselves;

(3) Asking students to discuss the topic they are going to read about;

(4) Asking students to discuss what they have read;

(5) Having students listen to a model reading of what they have just read;

(6) Using individual conferences in which the teacher converses with an individual student at a time during or after reading to diagnose his/her problems in reading and to suggest solutions to these problems;

(7) Using peer/group conferences in which students converse with one another during and/or after reading to share reading strategies, ideas, and experiences;

(8) Asking students to act out parts of the story they have read;

(9) Asking students to retell the story they have read from a different point of view;

(10) Asking students to keep a reading log and to discuss it with the class.

15.4 Self-checks

1. The author thinks that teachers cannot use listening to support reading or vice versa unless students know the differences between the two skills? Do you agree with him? Why? Why not?
2. What are the metacognitive strategies you think listeners and readers use?

3. While similarities exist between listening and reading, there are a number of differences between them. Discuss.

Part Five

==========

Integrating All Language Skills

==========

Chapter Sixteen

Integrating All Language Skills

16.1 Introduction

Advocates of the skills-based approach (e.g., Boyle, 1987; Hughes and Woods, 1981; Swinton and Powers, 1980) take the position that language is divisible and needs to be fractionated and broken down into separate, discrete elements for the purpose of instruction. They further claim that if each language skill is practiced and mastered individually, the unitary nature of language would emerge as an outgrowth of such instruction.

On the other hand, advocates of the whole-language approach, among other educators and applied linguists, take the position that language is unitary (e.g., Farris, 1989; Lapp and Flood, 1992; Lundsteen, 1989; McDonough and Shaw, 1993; Temple and Gillet, 1984). As McDonough and Shaw (1993) put it:

> **If we look around us in our daily lives we can see that we rarely use language skills in isolation but in**

> **conjunction ... and, even though the classroom is clearly not the same as "real life," it could be argued that part of its function is to replicate it. If one of the jobs of the teacher is to make the students "communicatively competent" in L2, then this will involve more than being able to perform in each of the four skills separately. By giving learners tasks which expose them to these skills in conjunction, it is possible that they will gain deeper understanding of how communication works in the foreign language as well as becoming more motivated when they see the value of performing meaningful tasks and activities in the classroom. (pp. 201-202)**

Supporting the holistic view, Temple and Gillet (1984) state:

> **The organization of most language arts programs suggests that reading, writing, speaking, listening, spelling and the other components are separate subjects. In reality each supports and reinforces the others, and language arts must be taught as a complex of interrelated language processes. (p. 461)**

Whole language theoreticians also claim that all language skills have graphophonic, syntactic, and semantic

characteristics in common. They add that language presents a totality which cannot be broken down into isolated skills.

However, as mentioned in chapter one, it is the height of unreasonableness to integrate all language skills from the very beginning of foreign language learning. Therefore, the comprehensive approach shifts to total integration of all language skills at the university level. At this level, total integration can be successfully carried out through the literature-based approach. This approach plays a vital role in developing EFL students' linguistic knowledge on the use level. As El-Menoufy (1993) puts it:

> **The student learning the foreign language wants to learn how to express meaning in that foreign language. Literature is the only variety which makes him/her aware of the potentialities of the language for the expression of meaning and draws his/her attention to the way the formal properties of the language, i.e. its grammar and vocabulary, express these meanings. This is why I think literature is an essential component in the foreign language teaching course – primarily for linguistic purposes and, not**

> **simply for cultural or other purposes, as has usually been argued. (p. 260)**

The literature-based approach can also play an important role in developing reading, writing, and oral skills. As Stern (1991) puts it:

> **All the elements of literature—plot, character, setting, and theme—help promote reading comprehension by presenting special challenges to readers which demand that they learn to put into practice specific reading strategies, and by helping carry students along in their reading. Moreover, they provide the subject matter, the context, and the inspiration for numerous written and oral activities so that a single literary work becomes the central focus of a classroom study unit. (p. 328)**

Moreover, literature can help EFL students understand the foreign culture because it immerses them in the world it depicts. Wabby (1995) makes this point clear in the following way:

> If a learner reads a novel or a play in the target language, for example, this gives him the opportunity to live the real-to-life experience of the characters and becomes aware of how the people of this particular culture behave under certain circumstances....The involvement of the learner in the literary text enables him to perceive and be aware of how people of other cultures behave. That is why literature and literary materials as a whole can be a good medium to develop the learners cultural awareness. (p. 154)

As indicated in this section, the teaching and learning of language through literature can help students develop the various components of the curricula in the departments of English at Egyptian universities.

16.2 Summary of research on literature-based instruction

A review of research related to literature-based instruction revealed that studies done in this area were conducted with various types of native English speakers. These studies found that the literature-based approach developed reading

comprehension (Bader *et al*., 1987; Lester, 1993; Madison, 1991; Richardson, 1995), attitudes towards reading (Froelich, 1992; Kaya, 2002; Kunze, 1994; Oppelt, 1991; Richardson, 1995), writing proficiency (Gipe, 1993), metacognitive knowledge about reading and writing (Gambrell and Palmer, 1992), vocabulary (Oppelt, 1991), and phonemic awareness (Moriarty, 1990).

16.3 Classroom activities for integrating all language skills through literature

The following literature-based activities, synthesized from several sources, offer students the opportunity to actively engage in learning the language skills and the target culture while simultaneously gaining insights into literary competence.

(1) Asking students to make predictions about what will happen in the story they are going to read;

(2) Asking students to write summaries, analyses of characters, reviews, abstracts, appraisals of the author's technique, and to discuss what they have written in groups;

(3) Asking students to dramatize parts of the literary text they have read;

(4) Asking students to discuss extracts from the literary text they have read;

(5) Asking students to read parts of a play dramatically;

(6) Asking students to read poetry aloud;

(7) Asking students to write extensions of scenes or events;

(8) Asking students to rewrite a part of prose fiction into dialogue and to dramatize what they have written;

(9) Asking students to write a letter to the author of the literary text they have read;

(10) Asking one of the students to portray the author and other students to ask him/her about the literary work;

(11) Asking students to write an alternative ending to the story they have read and to share what they have written in pairs;

(12) Asking students to use literature dialogue journals to give those who talk little in class the opportunity to reflect on readings/discussions;

(13) Asking students to keep a literature log while reading the assigned text and to discuss what they have written with the class;

(14) Asking students to speak about their personal experiences that relate to the literary selection;

(15) Asking students to discuss an issue the literary work raises before reading it;

(16) Asking students to assess the worth of the author's point of view either orally or in writing;

(17) Asking students to paraphrase parts of a poetic text;

(18) Asking students to write about the poem's poetic language and structure;

(19) Asking students to discuss the differences and similarities between two poems;

(20) Asking students to discuss the relationship between and among the language units in the poem they have read;

(21) Asking students to compare/contrast two literary texts orally or in writing in terms of pedagogical purpose, cultural perspective, linguistic level, etc.;

(22) Asking students to show orally or in writing how the literary text they have read depicts the social setting in which the events take place;

(23) Asking students to write a critical appreciation of the poem they have read and to discuss it with the class;

(24) Asking students to tell the story they have read from a different point of view;

(25) Asking students to analyze the author's style of writing;

(26) Asking students to write about what they would do if they were one of the characters in the story they have read;

(27) Asking students to speak about the feelings they have about the characters in the story they have read;

(28) Asking a student to portray a character and other students to interview him/her focusing on how s/he feels about an event or another character and how s/he hopes the dramatic conflict will be resolved;

(29) Asking students to portray a character and to write a letter to another character to change his/her opinion on an issue;

(30) Asking students to write a letter to a character evaluating his or her actions in the story;

(31) Asking students to write about an incident, that made them angry or happy, in the story they have read;

(32) Asking students to write about the cultural forces that might shape the author's view;

(33) Asking students to rewrite parts of a play or a scene into narrative;

(34) Asking students to rewrite a story in the form of a script for a play;

(35) Asking students to change a real-life story to a fantasy by changing human characters to talking animals or realistic settings to magic ones;

(36) Asking students to write about a cultural issue in the literary work they have read and to compare it with their own culture;

(37) Asking students to analyze utterances in the literary text they have read in terms of their communicative functions;

(38) Asking students to translate extracts from set plays, novels, and poems into the native language;

(39) Asking students to translate extracts from Shakespearian plays into modern English;

(40) Asking students to analyze dialectal variations in the play they have read;

(41) Asking students to compare the dialects of the characters in the play they have read;

(42) Using extracts from set plays, novels, and poems as examples of stress, intonation, and rhyme;

(43) Playing a recording or a video of the literary selection;

(44) Asking students to tell their personal stories either orally or in writing.

16.4 Self-checks

1. **Is foreign language proficiency divisible, unitary, or both?**
2. **Take any chapter from a novel you are reading or familiar with and think of how it could be used for teaching all language skills.**
3. **Do you think that all language skills can be integrated from the very beginning of foreign language learning? Give your reasons.**

Part Six

==========

Error Correction and Assessment

==========

Chapter Seventeen

Error Correction

Just like language teaching and learning, error correction, whether oral or written, was influenced by different approaches in the field of psychology. This led to the appearance of three major techniques for error correction. These techniques are briefly described below:

17.1 Local error-correction

Drawing on the behaviorist view of learning, advocates of the skills-based approach view errors as sins which should be eliminated at all cost. They believe that errors should be locally and immediately corrected for fear that learners may become habituated to their own errors. As Larsen-Freeman (1986) states, "It is important to prevent learners from making errors. Errors lead to the formation of bad habits. When errors do occur, they should be immediately corrected by the teacher" (p. 40). Such a local correction technique is always directed at bits and pieces of students' language. Correction, according to this technique, is done by providing

the student with the correct form. Then, the student repeats this correct form several times.

Opponents of this technique claim that it encourages students to focus on bits and pieces of language rather than on meaning. Another disadvantage is that this technique consumes teachers' time. A final disadvantage is that this technique intimidates language learning.

17.2 Global error-correction

Drawing on the constructivist view of learning, some advocates of the whole-language approach, among others, propose that teachers should focus on errors of meaning rather than on errors of form. In other words, errors that cause a listener or reader to misunderstand or not to comprehend a message. Such advocates claim that the correction of global errors develops students' communicative ability and increases their motivation to learn the language. Although this technique encourages students to concentrate on meaning, it sacrifices accuracy for the sake of fluency.

17.3 No error-correction

Whole-language purists, among others, propose no correction at all. Such purists claim that students' errors are natural

and are supposed to disappear gradually through communication and self-correction. With respect to reading comprehension, for example, Smith (1992) states, "If in fact you are not making errors when you read, you are probably not reading efficiently, you are processing more visual information than you need."

The most obvious advantage of the no error-correction technique is that this technique does not intimidate language learners (Truscott, 1996). Another advantage of this technique is that it encourages learners to explore their thinking and regard themselves as capable thinkers, engaged in intellectual work. In support of this, Terrell (1982) believes that the following three reasons exist for avoiding the correction of speech errors:

(1) Correction of speech errors plays no important role in the progress toward an adult's model of grammar in any natural language acquisition situation.

(2) Correction of speech errors will create affective barriers.

> (3) Correction of speech errors tends to focus the speaker on form promoting learning to the expense of acquisition. (p. 128)

However, opponents of the no error-correction technique claim that this technique sacrifices accuracy for the sake of fluency. As Hammerly (1991) puts it:

> The opinion that no error needs to be corrected in the SL classroom is preposterous, and the end result of that practice is sadly obvious. Up to a point there is general improvement with little or no correction. But in the classroom, that point represents minimal (i.e. survival) SL competence. (p. 91)

Furthermore, my teaching experience says that this technique leads to the formation of incorrect habits which are much more difficult to change later.

17.4 A comprehensive approach to error correction

The comprehensive approach holds that teachers should move from local to global and finally to no error correction in every lesson during the stages of integrating subsidiary

skills with main language skills at the primary level and main language skills with subsidiary skills at the preparatory level. During these two stages, the teacher shifts from correcting the local errors related to the subskill(s) drilled in step 1, to correcting global errors in step 2, and finally to no error-correction in step 3 (see the three-step procedure in parts 2 and 3 in this book).

The comprehensive approach also holds that teachers should correct no errors at all during the stages of integrating each two main language skills at the secondary level and all language skills at the university level (see parts 4 and 5 in this book).

As noted above, the comprehensive approach holds that error correction must be gradually withdrawn as students progress in any lesson in particular and the target language in general. This, in turn, allows students to gain self-confidence, fluency and autonomy.

17.5 Summary of research on error correction

A literature search in the area of error correction indicated that studies done in this area focused on the effect of local correction on language accuracy. Some of these studies found

that local error correction improved language accuracy (e.g., Carroll and Swain, 1993; Gaydos, 1991; Jenkins *et al*., 1983). Other studies found that local error correction did not lead to an improvement in language performance (e.g., DeKeyser, 1993; Robb *et al*., 1986; Semke, 1984).

It is also evident, by literature, that research has not addressed the effect of correcting global errors on language proficiency and that only one study investigated the effects of correcting local versus global errors on language performance. In this study, Hendrickson (1977) found that correcting local errors in one group and global errors in another did not make a difference in students' language proficiency.

The results of the studies reviewed above provide little support one way or the other. Therefore, I claim that it is best to use the comprehensive approach to error correction because this approach can be effective with different learners in different situations.

17.6 Self-checks

1. **Try to find out how your students feel about your error correction practice in the classroom.**

2. Do you think that errors can disappear gradually through communication? Why? Why not?

3. What should feedback be mainly on: form, content, or both?

Chapter Eighteen

Language Assessment

A literature search revealed that there are two major types of language assessment. These two types are briefly described below:

18.1 Discrete-point assessment

From the skill-building perspective, assessment is directed at discrete language components such as phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicon, and the like (Dieterich and Freeman, 1979). Such components are usually measured by quantitative measures (e.g., multiple choice, true or false, and fill in the blanks). The major advantage of this type of assessment is that it covers a wide variety of instructional objectives. Another advantage is that it is valid and reliable.

However, opponents of discrete-point assessment claim that this type of assessment is not authentic because it yields information about minute elements of the language, not about language use in real life situations. As Oller (1979) a long time ago pointed out:

> **Discrete point analysis necessarily breaks the elements of language apart and tries to teach them (or test them) separately with little or no attention to the way those elements interact in a larger context of communication. What makes it ineffective as a basis for teaching or testing languages is that crucial properties of language are lost when its elements are separated. (p. 212)**

Another argument against discrete-point assessment is that it fails to assess higher-order thinking and learning processes (Haney and Madaus, 1989; Neill and Medina, 1989; O'Neil, 1992; Wiggins, 1989). Still another argument is that this type of assessment does not require students to demonstrate the full range of their abilities (Goodman, 1986).

A final argument against discrete-point assessment is that it encourages rote memorization of bits and pieces of language and creates the impression that these bits and pieces are more important than meaning. And this is the impression that stays with students.

18.2 Global assessment

Realizing that the whole is more than the sum of its parts and that discrete-point assessment is an inadequate indicator of language proficiency, whole language advocates, among other language assessment theoreticians, called for the use of global assessment (e.g., Antonacci, 1993; Cambourne and Turbill, 1990; Norris and Hoffman, 1993; Teale, 1988; Weaver, 1990). This type of assessment uses qualitative measures such as written reports, interviews, projects, portfolios, conversations, observations, and journals.

The most important advantage of this type of assessment is that it is meaningful. As Norris and Hoffman (1993) put it:

> **A language sample obtained in context is far more meaningful than information gleaned about a child's language from discrete tasks that attempt to assess the semantic, syntactic, morphological, phonological, and pragmatic components separately. (p. 111)**

Another advantage is that global assessment provides teachers with the opportunity to assess learning processes and higher-order thinking. As Vance (1990) puts it:

> **Whole language also provides teachers with the opportunity to use and appreciate the unique, idiosyncratic thinking processes of their students. Assessment is not limited to determining whether a right or wrong word is written in the blank, but is expanded to include conversation, written and oral; the application of skills in contextual settings; and observation of the students' ability to discuss, learn from others, draw meaning from various activities and sources, and exercise problem-solving skills. (p. 181)**

However, opponents of global assessment claim that qualitative measures are still in need of validation. Another disadvantage is that the range of tasks involved in this type of assessment is narrow. Still another disadvantage of this type of assessment is that many studies have found differences in rater behaviour due to factors such as rater background and amount of rater training (e.g., Chalhoub-Deville, 1996; McNamara, 1996; Schoonen *et al*., 1997; Weigle, 1994). A final disadvantage is that this type of assessment is relatively time-consuming to administer (Brown and Hudson, 1998).

As indicated in this chapter, the skills-based and whole language assessments represent two different ways for collecting information. Both types of this information are necessary for assessment to be effective (Brown, 1988, 1995; Campbell *et al*., 2000; Herschensohn, 1994; Huba and Freed, 2000; Sasaki, 1996). As Brown (1995) puts it:

> **Clearly, both [quantitative and qualitative] types of data can yield valuable information in any evaluation, and therefore ignoring either type of information would be pointless and self-defeating. (p. 232)**

18.3 A comprehensive approach to language assessment

The comprehensive approach holds that the teacher should move from assessing subskills to assessing the comprehension and production of whole texts. This procedure should be used in every lesson during the integration of subsidiary skills with main language skills at the primary level and main language skills with subsidiary skills at the preparatory level. Such a procedure allows teachers to gather data during the implementation of the three-step procedure in every lesson

(see parts 2 and 3 in this book). This, in turn, increases the reliability of the gathered information, gives a comprehensive picture of students' usage and use of the language; and allows both teacher and student to monitor progress and improve the teaching/learning process.

The comprehensive approach also holds that students themselves should self-assess the ideas they understand and produce rather than the language during the stages of integrating each two main language skills at the secondary level and all language skills at the university level. This can be done through collaborative group-assessment, peer-assessment and self-assessment. In spite of the subjectivity of these assessment techniques, they can help secondary and university students identify their own strengths and weaknesses, enhance their self-esteem, increase their motivation to learn and develop their sense of responsibility.

As indicated above, the comprehensive approach asserts that assessment must be used as an integral part of the teaching-learning process at all levels. It also asserts that assessment should move from skills to meaning as students progress in any lesson at the primary and preparatory levels and from

teacher-generated to student-regulated assessment as they progress in the target language in general.

18.4 Self-checks

1. **What are the most common ways of assessing language proficiency in your context?**
2. **What effect does assessment have on instruction?**
3. **A combination of both qualitative and quantitative measures guarantees the validity of the results. Discuss.**

References

Abadzi, H. (1984). Ability grouping effects on academic achievement and self-esteem in a southwestern school district. *Journal of Educational Research*, 77(5), 287-292.

Abdan, A. (1981). The effect of sentence-combining practice on the written syntactic maturity, overall writing quality, and reading comprehension of EFL Saudi students. *DAI*, 11(11), 3307A.

Abou-Hadid, A. (1994). An analytical and experimental study of secondary school students' punctuation errors. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, Women's College, Ain Shams University.

Abu-Humos, O. (1993). Interlingual and cross-modalities relationships of first language and second language of adult EFL Arabic speakers. *DAI*, 53(9), 3129A.

Acuna, D. (1986). English as a second language (ESL) development: An investigation into the relationship of the students' reading comprehension and writing ability at the college level in Puerto Rico. *DAI*, 47(4), 1201A.

Acuña-Reyes, R. (1993). Communicative competence and whole language instruction in the foreign language secondary school classroom. In Angela Carrasquillo and Carolyn Hedley (Eds.), *Whole Language and the Bilingual Learner* (pp. 20-34). Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Company.

Adair-Hauck, R. (1994). A descriptive analysis of whole language/guided participatory versus explicit teaching strategies in foreign language instruction. *DAI*, 54(9), 3353A.

Adams, M. (1990). *Beginning to Read: Thinking and Learning about Print*. Urbana, IL: Center for the Study of Reading.

Adams, M., Treiman, R., and Pressley, M. (1996). Reading, writing, and literacy. In I. Sigel and A. Renninger (Eds.), *Handbook of Child Psychology, Vol. 4: Child Psychology in Practice*. New York: Wiley.

Agnew, N. (1995). Improving student writing skills by using whole language instruction. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, Saint Xavier University.

Alexander, L. G. (1990). Why teach grammar? In James E. Elatis (Ed.), *Linguistics, Language Teaching, and Language Acquisition: The Interdependence of Theory, Practice and Research* (pp. 377-382). Washington, D. C.: Georgetown University Press.

Al-Gameel, S. (1982). Designing an EFL programme to develop the listening and speaking skills of first year secondary students. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, Faculty of Education, Ain Shams University.

Allen, D., Duch, B., and Groh, S. (1996). The power of problem-based learning in teaching introductory science courses. In L. Wilkerson and W. Gijselaers (Eds.), *Bringing Problem-Based Learning to Higher Education: Theory and Practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Anderson, A. and Lynch, T. (1988). *Listening*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Anderson, G. S. (1984). *A Whole Language Approach to Reading*. Lanham, MD: University Press of America.

Anderson, P. and Lapp, D. (1979). *Language Skills in Elementary Education*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc.

Anderson, R. and Freebody, P. (1981). Vocabulary knowledge. In John T. Guthrie (Ed.), *Comprehension and Teaching: Research Reviews.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Anderson, R., Hiebert, E., Scott, J., and Wilkinson, I. (1985). *Becoming a Nation of Readers: The Report of the Commission on Reading*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Education.

Andrews, D. (1985). The relationship between the use of intonation and reading comprehension. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of South Carolina.

Angelo, T. and Cross, K. (1993). *Classroom Assessment Techniques: A Handbook for College Teachers*. Second Edition. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Antonacci, P. (1993). Natural assessment in whole language classrooms. In A. Carrasquillo and C. Hedley (Eds.), *Whole language and the Bilingual Learner* (pp. 116-131). Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Company.

Applebee, A., Langer, J., Mullis, I., Latham, A., and Gentile, C. (1994). *NAEP 1992 Writing Report Card*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Armbruster, B., Anderson, T., and Ostertag, J. (1987). Does text structure/summarization instruction facilitate learning from expository text. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 22, 331-346.

Askov, E. and Greff, K. (1975). Handwriting: Copying versus tracing as the most effective type of practice. *Journal of Educational Research*, 69, 96-98.

Askov, E. and Kamm, K. (1976). Context clues: Should we teach children to use a classification system in reading? *Journal of Educational Research,* 69, 341-344.

Atwell, N. (1987). *In the Middle: Writing, Reading, and Learning with Adolescents*. Upper Montclair, NJ: Boynton/Cook.

Azwell, T. (1990). An investigation of the effects of a whole language approach on the reading achievement of intermediate grade students who differ in scholastic ability and cognitive style. *DAI*, 50(7), 1997A.

Backscheider, P. (1972) Punctuation for the reader: A teaching approach. *The English Journal*, 61, 874-877.

Bader, L., Veatch, J., Emerita, and Eldredge, J. (1987). Trade books or basal readers? *Reading Improvement*, 24(1), 62-67.

Balkiewicz, E. (1992). The difference in reading and writing achievement and attitude for students who participate in a teacher-developed holistic reading/language arts program compared with students who participate in a modified basal reading/language arts program. Unpublished Ph. D. Dissertation, Temple University.

Ball, E. and Blackman, B. (1991). Does phoneme awareness training in kindergarten make a difference in early word recognition and developmental spelling. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 26(1), 49-66.

Barnett, M. A. (1989). Writing as a process. *The French Review*, 63(1), 31-44.

Barr, R. (1985). *Reading Diagnosis for Teachers*. White Plains, NY: Longman.

Barr, R., Blachowicz, C. and Wogman-Sadow, M. (1995). *Reading Diagnosis for Teachers: An Instructional Approach*. Third Edition. London: Longman.

Bates, E., Bretherton, I., and Snyder, L. (1988). *From First Words to Grammar: Individualized Differences and Dissociable Mechanisms*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Batjes, K. and Brown, T. (1997). *Improving Reading Achievement of First Grade Students by Integrating Phonics Skills into a Whole Language Curriculum*. ERIC Document No. 409 539.

Bauder, T. and Milman, J. (1990). *ESL Teaching and Learning Styles at the University of the Americas, Puebla, Mexico*. ERIC Document No. 322 714.

Bear, D. (1982). Patterns of oral reading across stages of word knowledge. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Virginia, Charlottesville.

Bear, D. and Barone, D. (1989). Using Children's spellings in the primary classroom. *Reading Psychology: An International Quarterly*, 10(3), 275-292.

Beaugrande, R. (1979). The process of invention: Association and recombination. *College Composition and Communication*, 30(3), 260-267.

Becerra-Keller, S. (1993). Effects of language instruction (whole language and basal reader) on vocabulary and reading comprehension achievement of English as a second language students: Instructional leadership perspectives. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Alabama.

Beck, I. and McKeown, M. (1991). Conditions of vocabulary acquisition. In R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, and P. D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of Reading Research, Vol. 2* (pp. 789-814). White Plains, NY: Longman.

Beck, I., McKeown, M. and McCaslin, E. (1983). Vocabulary development: All contexts are not created equal. *Elementary School Journal,* 83, 177-181.

Beck, J. (1985). The effect of a training program in listening on the reading achievement and listening comprehension of second and third grade pupils. *DAI*, 46(3), 608A.

Beers, C. (1980). The relationship of cognitive development to spelling and reading abilities. In Edmund H. Henderson and James W. Beers (Eds.), *Developmental and Cognitive Aspects of Learning to Spell: A Reflection of Word Knowledge* (pp. 74-84). Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association.

Benson, P. and Hijett, C. (1980). Listening competence: A prerequisite to communication. In J. W. Oller, Jr. and K. Perkins (Eds.), *Research in Language Testing* (pp. 59-65). Rowley, Massachusetts: NewBury House Publishers, Inc.

Berger, N. (1978). Why can't John read? Perhaps he's not a good listener. *Journal of Reading Disabilities*, 11(10), 31-36.

Bernardy, A. (1998). Learning to narrate: Teaching the Spanish preterit/imperfect according to a theory of skill acquisition. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Pittsburgh.

Bertelson, P. (1986). The onset of literacy: Liminal remarks. *Cognition*, 24, 1-30.

Bialystock, E. and Ryan, E. (1985). A metacognitive framework for the development of first and second language skills. In D. Forrest-Pressley, G. MacKinnon, and T. Waller (Eds.), *Metacognition, Cognition, and Human Performance, Vol. I* (pp. 207-252). Orlando, FL.: Academic Press.

Bitner, S. (1992). The effects of reading workshop on eighth-graders' vocabulary, comprehension, voluntary reading, and attitude toward reading. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Temple University.

Boger, B. (1987). Teaching expository text comprehension to learning-disabled adolescents by modeling a hypothesis testing strategy. *DAI*, 48(4), 897A.

Bonham, L. (1989). Using learning style information, too. In Hayes, E. R. (ed.), *Effective Teaching Styles*. (New Directions for Continuing Education, No. 43). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Boyle, J. (1987). Is listening comprehension a separate factor in language ability. *IRAL*, 25(3), 238-256.

Bradley, L. (1988). Making connections in learning to read and spell. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, 2, 3-18.

Bradley, L. and Bryant, P. (1983). Categorizing sounds and learning to read: A causal connection. *Nature*, 301, 419-421.

Bradley, L. and Bryant, P. (1985). *Rhyme and Reason in Reading and Spelling*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Brassard, M. (1970). *Direct Comparisons between Listening and Reading as Language Abilities in the Intermediate Grades*. Medford, MA: Tufts University.

Bromley, K. (1988). *Language Arts: Exploring Connections*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Brooks, L. (1986). A study of the effects of systematic listening instruction upon the reading comprehension achievement of first grade students. Unpublished Field Study, University of Mississippi.

-------.(1990). Effects of systematic listening instruction on the reading comprehension achievement of sixth grade students enrolled in a remedial reading program. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Mississippi.

Brooks, N. (1964). *Language and Language Learning*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World.

Brown, D. (1987). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall Inc.

Brown, J. (1988). Improving ESL placement tests using two perspectives. *TESOL Quarterly*, 23, 65-83.

-------.(1995). *The Elements of Language Curriculum*. New York: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.

Brown, J. and Hudson, T. (1998). The alternatives in language assessment. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(4), 653-675.

Brown, T. and Hayes, M. (1985). Literacy background and reading development in a second language. In T. H. Carr (Ed.), *The Development of Reading Skills*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bruck, M. (1990). Word recognition skills of adults with childhood: Diagnoses of dyslexia. *Developmental Psychology*, 26, 439-454.

Bruthiaux, P. (1993). Knowing when to stop: Investigating the nature of punctuation. *Language and Communication*, 13(1), 27-43.

Brynildssen, S. (2000). *Vocabulary's Influence on Successful Writing.* Available at: http://www.ericdigests.org/2001-3/influence.htm

Buchanan, E. (1989). *Spelling for Whole Language Classrooms*. Katonah, NY: Richard C. Owens.

Byrnes, H. (1984). The role of listening comprehension: A theoretical base. *Foreign Language Annals*, 17(4), 317-329.

California Department of Education. (1987) *English Language Arts Framework: Kindergarten through Grade Twelve*. Sacramento, CA.

Calkins, L. (1980). When children want to punctuate: Basic skills belong in context. *Language Arts*, 57, 567-573.

Cambourne, B. and Turbill, J. (1990). Assessment in whole-language classrooms: Theory into practice. *The Elementary School Journal*, 90(3), 337-349.

Campbell, D., Melenyzer, B., Nettles, D., and Wyman, Jr., R. (2000). *Portfolios and Performance Assessment in Teacher Education*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Carlisle, J. (1991). Planning an assessment of listening and reading comprehension. *Topics in Language Disorders*, 12, 17-31.

Carlsen, W. S. (1991). Questioning in classrooms: A sociolinguistic perspective. *Review of Educational Research*, 61(2), 175-178.

Carr, T., Brown, T., and Vavrus, C. (1985). A component skills analysis of reading performance. In T. H. Carr (Ed.), *The Development of Reading Skills*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Carrasquillo, A. L. (1993). Whole native language instruction for limited-English-proficient students. In Angela Carrasquillo and Carolyn Hedley (Eds.), *Whole Language and the Bilingual Learner* (pp. 3-19). Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Company.

Carrell, P. L. (1985). Facilitating ESL reading by teaching text structure. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19, 727-752.

-------.(1989). Introduction: Interactive approaches to second language reading. In P. Carrell, J. Devine, and D. Eskey (Eds.), *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading* (pp. 1-7). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Carroll, S. and Swain, M. (1993). Explicit and implicit negative feedback: An empirical study of the learning of linguistic generalizations. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition,* 15, 357-86.

Castle, J. (1999). Learning and teaching phonological awareness. In G. Thompson and T. Nicholson (Eds.), *Learning to Read: Beyond Phonics and Whole Language* (55-73). New York: Teachers College, Columbia University.

Castle, J. *et al*. (1994). Getting off to a better start in reading and spelling: The effects of phonemic awareness instruction within a whole language program. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 86(3), 350-59.

Celce-Murcia, M. (1991). Grammar pedagogy in second and foreign language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(3), 459-479.

Chafe, W. L. (1985). Linguistic differences produced by differences between speaking and writing. In David R. Olson, Nancy Torrance, and Angela Hildyard (Eds.), *Literacy, Language and Learning: The Nature and Consequences of Reading and Writing* (pp. 105-123). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Chalhoub-Deville, M. (1996). Performance assessment and the components of the oral construct across different tests and rater groups. In M. Milanovic and N. Saville (Eds.), *Performance Testing, Cognition and Assessment* (pp. 55-73). Cambridge: University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate and Cambridge University Press.

Chall, J. (1983). *Learning to Read: The Great Debate*. Second Edition. New York: McGraw-Hill.

--------.(1987). Two vocabularies for reading: Recognition and meaning. In Margaret G. McKeown and Mary E. Curtis (Eds.), *The Nature of Vocabulary Acquisition* (pp. 7-17). London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Chase, C. (1986). Essay test scoring: Interactions of relevant variables. *Journal of Educational Measurement.* 23, 33-41.

Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second Language Classrooms, Research on Teaching and Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Christison, M. A. (1990). Cooperative learning in the EFL classroom. *English Teaching Forum*, 28(4), 6-9.

Cirulli, S. (1995). A comparative study of achievement gains: Literature-based vs basal approach to junior high reading. *DAI*, 56(9), 3527A.

Clark, E. and Hecht, B. (1983). Comprehension, production, and language acquisition. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 34, 325-349.

Clay, M. (1985). ***The Early Detection of Reading Difficulties.*** **Auckland, New Zealand: Heinemann.**

Cohen, A. D. (1990). ***Language Learning, Insights for Learners, Teachers, and Researchers*****. New York: Newbury House Publishers.**

Combs, W. (1976). Further effects of sentence-combining practice on writing ability. ***Research in the Teaching of English*****, 10(2), 137-149.**

Comeau, R. F. (1987). Interactive oral grammar exercises. In W. M. Rivers (Ed.), ***Interactive Language Teaching*** **(pp. 57-69). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.**

Concepcion, B. (1992). The effects of grammar knowledge on the writing skills of business English students in Puerto Rico. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, New York University.

Connelly, V., Johnston, P., and Thompson, G. (1999). The influence of instructional approaches on reading procedures. In G. Thompson and T. Nicholson (Eds.), ***Learning to Read: Beyond Phonics and Whole Language*** **(103-123). New York: Teachers College, Columbia University.**

Cooper, M. (1982). Context as vehicle: Implications in writing. In M. Mystrand (Ed.), ***What Writers Know*** **(pp. 105-128). New York: Academic Press.**

Cooper, T. (1981). Sentence combining: An experiment in teaching writing. ***Modern Language Journal*****, 65(2), 158-165.**

Cosgrove, J. and Patterson, C. (1977). Plans and the development of listener skills. ***Developmental Psychology*****, 13, 557-564.**

Crawford, J. (1995). The effects of whole language instruction on community college students. ***DAI*****, 55(1), 3146A.**

Cress, S. W. (1990). Journal writing in kindergarten. ***DAI*****, 51(3), 767A.**

Crow, J. T. (1986). Receptive vocabulary acquisition for reading comprehension. ***Modern Language Journal*****, 70(3), 242-250.**

Cunningham, A. and Stanovich, K. (1990). Assessing print exposure and orthographic processing skill in children: A quick measure of reading experience. ***Journal of Educational Psychology*****, 82, 733-740.**

Curd, F. (1984). Listening comprehension: The prediction of reading and language arts achievement in the lower elementary grades. ***DAI*****, 44, 2967A.**

Cutler, A. (1987). Speaking for listening. In A. Allport, D. Mackay, W. Prinz, and E. Scheerer (Eds.), ***Language Perception and Production: Relationship between Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing*** **(pp. 23-40). London: Academic Press.**

Cziko, G. A. (1980). Language competence and reading strategies: A comparison of first and second-language oral reading errors. *Language Learning*, 30(1), 101-116.

Daly, J. A., Kreiser, P. O., and Roghaar, L. (1994). Question-asking comfort: Explorations of the demography of communication in the eighth grade classroom. *Communication Education*, 43, 27-41.

D'Angelo, J. (1977). Predicting reading achievement in a senior high school from intelligence, listening and informative writing. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of North Texas.

Danks, J. and End, L. (1987). Processing strategies for reading and listening. In R. Horowitz and S. Samuels (Eds.), *Comprehending Oral and Written Language* (pp. 271-294). New York: Academic Press.

Dansereau, D. (1987, April). Transfer from cooperative to individual studying. *Journal of Reading*, pp. 614-619.

Davey, B. (1990). Field dependence-independence and reading comprehension questions: Task and reader interactions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 15, 241-250.

Davis, J. N. (1989). Facilitating effects of marginal glosses on foreign language reading. *Modern Language Journal*, 73(1), 41-84.

Davis, W. (1996). *Educational Implications of a Study on Grammar and Basic Writing Skills in a Developmental English Course*. ERIC Document No. 392 067.

Day, E. M. and Shapson, S. M. (1991). Integrating formal and functional approaches to language teaching in French immersion: An experimental study. *Language Learning*, 41, 25-58.

DeHaven, E. (1988). *Teaching and Learning the Language Arts*. Third Edition. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman and Company.

DeKeyser, R. M. (1993). The Effect of error correction on L2 grammar knowledge and oral proficiency. *Modern Language Journal,* 77, 501-14.

Denner, P. McGinley, W., and Brown, E. (1989). Effects of story impressions as a prereading/writing activity on story comprehension. *Journal of Educational Research*, 82, 320-326.

Dieterich, T. and Freeman, C. (1979). *Language in Education Theory and Practice: A Linguistic Guide to English Proficiency Testing in Schools*. Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Doake, D. B. (1994). The myths and realities of whole language: An educational movement at risk. In Alan D. Flurkey and Richard J. Meyer (Eds.), *Under the Whole Language*

Umbrella: Many Cultures, Many Voices (pp. 125-157). Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.

Dobson, J. M. (1989). *Effective Techniques for English Conversation Groups*. Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs.

Donahue, M. and Bryan, T. (1983). Conversational skills and modeling in learning disabled boys. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 4(3), 251-278.

Donohue, C. (1985). A study of the impact of special writing program on the reading and writing achievement of gates students in a New York city junior high school remediation program. *DAI*, 48(3), 659A.

Doughty, C. (1991). Second language instruction does make a difference: Evidence from an empirical study of SL relativization. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 13, 431-69.

Droge, D. (1995). The effect of writing to a real audience for a real purpose on the writing skills and self-esteem of seventh grade inner city students. *DAI*, 55(8), 2306A.

Dunkel, P. (1991). Listening in the native and second/foreign language: Toward an integration of research and practice. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(3), 431-457.

Dunn, R. and Dunn, K. (1993). *Teaching Secondary School Students through Their Individual Learning Styles*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

--------.(1999). *The Complete Guide to the Learning Styles of Inservice System*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Edelsky, C. (1983). Segmentation and punctuation: Development data from young writers in a bilingual program. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 17(2), 135-156.

--------.(1994). Research about whole language, research for whole language. In Alan D. Flurkey and Richard J. Meyer (Eds.), *Under the Whole Language Umbrella: Many Cultures, Many Voices* (pp. 64-84). Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.

Edelsky, C., Altwerger, B. and Flores, M. (1991). *Whole Language: What's the Difference?* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Ehri, L. (1992). Reconceptualizing the development of sight word reading and its relationship to recoding. In P. B. Gough, L. C. Ehri, and R. Treiman (Eds.), *Reading Acquisition* (pp. 107-143). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum Associates.

Ehri, L. and Wilce, L. (1987). Does learning to spell help beginners learn to read words? *Reading Research Quarterly*, 22(1), 47-65.

Eitington, N. (1989). A comparison of learning styles of freshmen with high and low reading achievement in the community scholars liberal studies program at Georgetown University. *DAI*, 50(5), 1285A.

Elbow, P. (1981). *Writing with power: Techniques for mastering the writing process.* New York: Oxford.

Eldredge, J. L. (1990). Increasing the performance of poor readers in the third grade with a group-assisted strategy. *Journal of Educational Research*, 84(2), 69-77.

-------.(1991). An experiment with a modified whole language approach in first grade classrooms. *Reading Research and Instruction*, 30, 21-38.

-------.(1995). *Teaching Decoding in Holistic Classrooms*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Merrill/MacMillan.

Eldredge, J., Quinn, D., and Butterfield, (1990). Causal relationship between phonics, reading comprehension, and vocabulary achievement in the second grade. *Journal of Educational Research*, 83, 201-214.

El-Koumy, A. (1996). *Effects of Three Questioning Strategies on EFL Reading Comprehension*. Paper Presented at the 30th TESOL Convention, Chicago, Illinois USA, March 26-30, 1996. [ERIC Document No. 411 696].

-------. (1997a). *Review of Recent Studies Dealing with Techniques for Classroom Interaction*. Washington DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics. [ERIC Document No. 415 688].

-------. (1997b). Exploring the reading-writing relationship in NES and EFL students. *Proceedings of the 17th National Symposium on English Language Teaching in Egypt* (pp. 1-16). Ain Shams University, Cairo: CDELT.

-------. (1999). *Effect of Instruction in Story Grammar on the Narrative Writing of EFL Students*. 8p. Washington DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics. [ERIC Document No. 435 173].

-------. (2000). *Effects of Skills-Based versus Whole Language Approach on the Comprehension of EFL Students with Low and High Listening Ability Levels*.15p. Washington DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics. [ERIC Document No. 449 670].

-------. (2002). *Effects of Whole Language on Listening Comprehension*. Paper Presented at the 36th TESOL Convention, Salt Lake City, Utah, USA, April 9-13, 2002.

-------. (2005). *Effect of the Holistic Approach on the Quantity and Quality of EAP Students' Writing*. Paper Presented at the 10th EFL Skills Conference "Integrating EFL Skills:

Learning, Teaching and Standards". The American University in Cairo, January 12-14, 2005.

Ellis, R. (1993). Talking Shop: Second Language Acquisition Research: How Does it help Teachers? *ELT Journal,* 47, 3-11.

El-Menoufy, A. (1993). Panel on why literature? *Proceedings of the 12th National Symposium on English Language Teaching in Egypt* (pp. 259-260). Ain Shams University, Cairo: CDELT.

Eskey, D. (1989). Holiday in the bottom: An interactive approach to the language problems of second language readers. In P. Carrell, J. Devine, and D. Eskey (Eds.), *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading* (pp. 93-100). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Eskey, D. and Grabe, W. (1989). Interactive models for second language reading: Perspectives on instruction. In P. Carrell, J. Devine, and D. Eskey (Eds.), *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading* (pp. 223-238). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Evans, M. and Carr, T. (1985). Cognitive abilities, conditions of learning, and the early development of reading skill. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 20, 327-347.

Evans, R. (1979). The relationship between the reading and writing of syntactic structures. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 13, 129-136.

Ezell, P. (1995). The effects of whole language and direct instruction on reading achievement of fourth-grade students. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Alabama.

Fandt, P., Cady, S., and Sparks, M. (1993). The Impact of reward interdependency on the synergogy model of cooperative performance: Designing an effective team environment. *Small Group Research*. 20(1), 101-115.

Farris, P. (1989). From basal reader to whole language: transition tactics. *Reading Horizons*, 30(1), 23-29.

-------. (1991).Handwriting instruction should not become extinct. *Language Arts*, 68(4), 312-314.

Farris, P. and Kaczmarski, D. (1988). Whole language, a closer look. *Contemporary Education*, 59(2), 77-81.

Favreau, M. and Segalowitz, N. (1983). Automatic and controlled processes in the first and second language reading of fluent bilinguals. *Memory and Cognition*, 11(6), 565-574.

Feitelson, D. (1988). *Facts and Fads in Beginning Reading: A Cross-Language Perspective*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Field, J. (1997). Skills and strategies in listening comprehension. *Proceedings of the 3rd EFL Skills Conference "New Directions in Listening"* (pp. 23-35). The American University in Cairo: CACE.

Fitzgerald, J. (1989a).Enhancing two related thought processes: Revision in writing and critical reading. *The Reading Teacher*, October 1989, 42-84.

-------. (1989b). Research on stories: Implications for teachers. In K. D. Muth (Ed.), *Children's Comprehension of Text: Research into Practice* (pp. 2-36). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Fitzgerald, J. and Teasley, A. B. (1986). Effects of instruction in narrative structure on children's writing. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 78(6), 424-433.

Flahive, D. and Bailey, N. (1993). Exploring reading/writing relationships in adult second language learners. In J. G. Carson and I. Leki (Eds.), *Reading in the Composition Classroom: Second Language Perspectives* (pp. 128-140). Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.

Flood, J. and Lapp, D. (1987). Reading and writing relations: Assumptions and directions. In J. Squire (Ed.). *The Dynamics of Language Learning* (pp. 9-26). Urbana, IL.: National Conference on Research in English.

-------.(1991). Reading comprehension instruction. In J. Flood, J. Jensen, D. Lapp and J. Squire (Eds.). *Handbook of Research on Teaching the English Language Arts* (pp. 732-742). New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Flower, L., and Hayes, J. R. (1981). A cognitive process theory of writing. *CCC*, 32, 365-387.

Ford, E. (1991). Criteria for developing an observation scheme for cooperative language learning. *Modern Language Journal*, 48(1), 45-63.

Fotos, S. (1992). Grammar consciousness raising tasks: Negotiating interaction while focusing on form. *DAI*, 53(5), 1430A.

Fox, B. and Routh, D. (1976). Phonemic analysis and synthesis as word-attack skills. *Journal of Educational Psychology,* 68, 70-74.

Fox, D. (1991). Getting dressed to go out: A whole language approach to expository writing. In Yetta M. Goodman, Wendy J. Hood, and Kenneth S. Goodman (Eds.), *Organizing for Whole Language* (pp. 223-230). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Freeman, D. and Freeman, Y. 1992). *Whole Language for Second Language Learners*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

-------.(1994). Whole language principles for bilingual learners. In Alan D. Flurkey and Richard J. Meyer (Eds.). *Under the Whole Language Umbrella: Many Cultures, Many Voices* (pp. 240-263). Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.

Frey, J. (1993). The process writing approach and its effects on the reading comprehension of first-grade students in the Mississippi delta. *DAI*, 54(4), 1231A.

Fritz, T. (1996). Contemplating reading. In Christine Zaher (Ed.), *Proceedings of the Second EFL Skills Conference "New Directions in Reading"* (pp. 38-42). The American University in Cairo: CACE.

Froelich, K. (1992). Comparing literature-based and skills-based ("corrective reading program") approach for elementary pupils of limited reading proficiency. *DAI*, 53(9), 3156A.

Fuller, K. (1974). An investigation of the relationship between reading achievement and oral and written language of students enrolled in reading and English classes at Gainesville junior college. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Georgia University.

Gafaar, A. (1982). Designing a programme for developing the speaking skill of non-specialized teachers of English. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, Faculty of Education, Ain Shams University.

Gambrell, L. B. and Chasen, S. P. (1991). Explicit story structure instruction and the narrative writing of fourth- and fifth-grade below-average readers. *Reading Research and Instruction*, 31(1), 54-62.

Gambrell, L. B. and Palmer, B. (1992). Children's metacognitive knowledge about reading and writing in literature-based and conventional classrooms. *National Reading Conference Yearbook, No. 41* (pp. 215-223). US: National Reading Conference.

Gary, J. and Gary, N. (1981). Caution: Talking may be dangerous to your linguistic health. *IRAL*, 19, 1-14.

Gaydos, G. (1991). The effects of two error correction procedures on the acquisition of human sequential ordering performance. *DAI*, 52(5), 1690A.

Geiss, P. and Mayer, R. (1998). *Improving Listening Skills*. ERIC Document No. 426 613.

Gentry, J. and Gillet, J. (1993). *Teaching Kids to Spell*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Getman, G. (1983). About handwriting. *Academic Therapy*, 19 (2), 139-146.

Ghazi, T. (1983). Spelling ability of third grade and fifth grade pupils enrolled in intensive phonics eclectic instructional programs. *DAI*, 43(8), 2618A.

Gillard, M. (1996). *Storyteller Story Teacher: Discovering the Power of Storytelling for Teaching and Living*. York, Maine: Stenhouse Publishers.

Gipe, J. (1993). *Literacy Growth of Urban "At-Risk" Children Taught by University Students Using Literature-Based Instruction*. Eric Document No. 364832.

Gipps, C. and McGilchrist, B. (1999). Primary school learners. In P. Mortimore (Ed.), *Understanding Pedagogy and its Impact on Learning* (pp. 52-55). London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Goldberg, E. (1997). Handwriting quality: The effects of traditional vs. whole language instruction. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, University of Western Ontario (Canada).

Goldenberg, C. (1991). Learning to read in New Zealand: The balance of skills and meaning. *Language Arts*, 68, 555-562.

Goodman, K. S. (1974). Effective teachers of reading know language and children. *Elementary English, 51*, 823-828.

---------. (1986). *What's Whole in Whole Language?* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

---------. (1991). *Organizing for Whole Language*. Portsmouth, N.H.: Heinemann.

Goodman, K. and Goodman, Y. (1983). Reading and writing relationships: Pragmatic functions. *Language Arts*, 60, 590-599.

Gordon, C. J. and Braun, C. (1982). Story schemata: Metatextual aid to reading and writing. In J. A. Niles and L. A. Harris (Eds.), *New Inquiries in Reading Research and Instruction* (pp. 262-268). Rochester, NY: National Reading Conference.

--------.(1983). Using story schema as an aid to teaching comprehension and writing. *The Reading Teacher*, 37(2), 116-121.

Gordon, J. (1992). The effects of phonemic training on the spelling performance of elementary students with learning disabilities. *DAI*, 53(5), 1162A.

Gough, P. (1972). One second of reading. In J. F. Kavanagh, and I. G. Mattingly, (Eds.), *Language by Ear and by Eye* (pp. 85-102). Cambridge: MIT Press.

Gough, P. and Juel, C. (1991). The first stages of word recognition. In L. Rieben and C. Perfetti (Eds.), *Learning to Read: Basic Research and Its Implications* (pp. 47-56). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Gough, P., Juel, C., and Griffith, P. (1992). Reading, spelling, and the orthographic cipher. In P. Gough, L. Ehri, and R. Treiman (Eds.), *Reading Acquisition* (pp. 35-48). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Gough, P. and Tunmer, W. (1986). Decoding, reading, and reading disability. *Remedial and Special Education*, 7, 6-10.

Govindasamy, S. (1995). The effect of contrastive grammar instruction on clarity and coherence in the writings of Malay ESL college students. *DAI*, 55(12), 3770A.

Graaff, R. (1997). Effects of explicit instruction on second language acquisition. *SSLA*, 19, 249-276.

Graesser, A., Golding, J., and Long, D. (1991). Narrative representation and comprehension. In R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, and P. D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of Reading Research*, *Vol. 2* (pp. 171-205). White Plains, NY: Longman.

Graham, S. (1983). Effective spelling instruction. *The Elementary School Journal*, 83(5), 560-567.

Graham, S. and Madan, A. (1981). Teaching letter formation. *Academic Therapy*, 16(4), 389-396.

Griffith, P. and Olson, M. (1992). Phonemic awareness helps beginning readers break the code. *Reading Teacher*, 45(7), 516-23.

Haan, P. (1999). A comparison of two methods of teaching word recognition to kindergarten students. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Memorial University of Newfoundland (Canada).

Hague, A. (1987). Vocabulary instruction: What L2 can learn from L1. *Foreign Language Annals*, 20(3), 217-224.

Hairston, M. (1982). The winds of changes: Thomas Kuhn and the revolution in the teaching of writing. *College Composition and Communication*, 33(1), 76-88.

Hall, K. (1993). Process writing in French immersion. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 49(2), 255-274.

Hall, N. (1994). Written dialogue with young children: Making writing live. In Alan D. Flurkey and Richard J. Meyer (Eds.), *Under the Whole Language Umbrella: Many Cultures, Many Voices* (pp. 343-356). Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.

Hall, N., Robinson, A., and Crawford, L. (1991). *Someday You Will No All about It: Young Writers' Explorations in the World of Letters.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Hamayan, E. V. (1989). *Teaching Writing to Potentially English Proficient Students Using Whole Language Approaches*. Program Information Guide Series (No. 11). Washington: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Hammerly, H. (1991). *Fluency and Accuracy: Toward Balance in Language Teaching and Learning*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, LTD.

Haney, W. and Madaus, G. (1989). Searching for alternatives to standardized tests: Whys, whats, and whithers. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 70, 683-687.

Hansen, J. (1981). The effects of inference training and practice on young children's reading comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 16, 391-417.

Hansen, J. and Pearson, P. (1983). An instructional study: Improving the inferential comprehension of good and poor fourth-grade readers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 75, 821-829.

Harley, B. and Swain, M. (1984). The interlanguage of immersion students and its implications for second language teaching. In A. Davis, C. Criper and A. Howatt (Eds.), *Interlanguage* (pp. 291-311). Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Harmer, J. (1998). *How to Teach English*. Essex: Addison Wesley Longman Limited.

Hayes, D. and Tierney, R. (1982). Developing readers' knowledge through analogy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 17, 256-280.

Heald-Taylor, G. (1994). *Whole Language Strategies for ESL students.* Carlsbad: Dominie Press, Inc.

Hedley, C. N. (1993). Theories for whole language: A cross-cultural perspective. In Angela Carrasquillo and Carolyn Hedley (Eds.), *Whole Language and the Bilingual Learner* (pp. 185-199). Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Company.

Henderson, E. (1990). *Teaching Spelling*. Second Edition. Boston, MA: Houghton Muffin Company.

Hendrickson, J. M. (1977). The effects of error correction treatments upon adequate and accurate communication in the written compositions of adult learners of English as a second language. *DAI*, 73(11), 7002A.

Hendrickson, J. M. (1987). Error correction in foreign language teaching: Recent theory, research and practice. In Michael H. Long and Jack C. Richards (Eds.), *Methodology in TESOL: A Book of Readings* (pp. 355-369). New York: Newbury House Publishers.

Hennings, D. (1992). Students' perceptions of dialogue journals used in college methods courses in language arts and reading. *Reading Research and Instruction*, 31(3), 15-31.

Herman, P., Anderson, R., Pearson, P., and Nagy, W. (1987). Incidental acquisition of word meaning from expositions with varied text features. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 22, 263-284.

Herschensohn, J. (1994). Balancing assessment procedures in evaluation of foreign language. *Journal of General Education*, 43(2), 134-46.

Hertz-Lazarowitz, R., Sharan, S., and Steinberg, R. (1980). Classroom learning style and cooperative behavior of elementary school children. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 72(1), 99-106.

Hiebert, E. (1983). An examination of ability grouping for reading instruction. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 18(2), 231-255.

Hiebert, E., Englert, C., and Brennan, S. (1983). Awareness of text structure in recognition and production of expository discourse. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 15(4), 63-79.

Hieke, A. (1981). Audio-lectal practice and fluency acquisition. *Foreign Language Annals*, 14(3), 189-194.

Higgs, T. and Clifford, R. (1982). The push toward communication. In T. V. Higgs (Ed.), *Curriculum, Competence and the Foreign Language Teacher*. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook.

Hildyard, A. and Hidi, S. (1985). Oral-written differences in the production and recall of narratives. In David R. Olson, Nancy Torrance, and Angela Hildyard (Eds.), *Literacy, Language and Learning: The Nature and Consequences of Reading and Writing* (pp. 285-306). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hildyard, A. and Olson, D. (1982). On the comprehension and memory of oral vs. written discourse. In D. Tannen (Ed.), *Spoken and Written Language: Exploring Orality and Literacy* (pp. 19-34). Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Hill, S. (1982). Relationships between reading and writing performance: A correlational study of Metropolitan reading subscores and national assessment of writing scores. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Florida.

Hirsch, E. and Niedermeyer, F. (1973). The effects of tracing prompts and discrimination training on kindergarten handwriting performance. *Journal of Educational Research*, 67, 81-86.

Holland, K. and Hall, L. (1989). Reading achievement in the first grade classroom: A comparison of basal and whole language approach. *Reading Improvement*, 26(4), 323-329.

Hollingsworth, P. M. and Reutzel, D. R. (1988). Whole language with LD children. *Academic Therapy*, 23(5), 477-488.

Holtz, C. (1994). The effects of extra listening practice on the speaking and listening skills of university students in an elementary level natural approach Spanish class. *DAI*, 54(8), 3014A.

Holtz, D. (1988). Interrelationships between the reading comprehension and writing achievement of college freshmen and their abilities to reconstruct scrambled expository paragraphs. *DAI*, 48(7), 1680A.

Honig, B. (1996). *Teaching Our Children to Read: The Role of Skills in a Comprehensive Reading Program*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Hooper, S. and Hannafin, M. J. (1988). Cooperative CBI: The effects of heterogeneous versus homogeneous grouping on the learning of progressively complex concepts. *Journal of Educational Computing Research*, 4, 413-424.

--------.(1991). The effects of group composition on achievement, interaction and learning efficiency during computer-based cooperative instruction. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 39(3), 27-40.

Hooper, S., Temiyakarn, C., and Williams, M. (1993). The effect of cooperative learning and learner control on high- and average-ability students. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 41(2), 5-18.

Hooper, S., Ward, T., Hannafin, M., and Clark, H. (1989). The effects of aptitude composition on achievement during small-group learning. *Journal of Computer-Based Instruction*, 16, 102-109.

Hoover, W. and Gough, P. (1990). The simple view of reading. *Reading and Writing*, 2, 127-160.

Horowitz, R. and Samuels, S. (1987). Comprehending oral and written language: Critical contrasts for literacy and schooling. In R. Horowitz and S. Samuels (Eds.), *Comprehending Oral and Written Language* (pp. 1-52). New York: Academic Press.

Howe, K. (1985). Aural comprehension dynamics in the pre-vocal phase of foreign language and second language instruction. *DAI*, 45(1), 916A.

Howell, K. and Morehead, M. (1987). *Curriculum-Based Evaluation for Special Remedial Education*. Columbus, OH: Merrill.

Huba, M. and Freed, J. (2000). *Learner-Centered Assessment on College Campuses: Shifting the Focus from Teaching to Learning*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Huckin, T. and Bloch, J. (1993). Strategies for inferring word-meanings in context: A cognitive model. In Thomas Huckin, Margot Haynes and James Coady (Eds.), *Second Language Reading and Vocabulary Learning* (pp. 153-177). Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Huckin, T. and Jin, Z. (1987). Inferring word-meaning from context: A study in second language acquisition. *In ESCOL'86: Proceedings of the Third Eastern States Conference on Linguistics*. Columbus, OH: Department of Linguistics.

Hughes, A. and Woods, A. (1981). Unitary Competence and Cambridge proficiency. Paper presented at AILA Congress, Lund.

Hulett, J. (1986). Third grade writings: Their relationship with reading. *DAI*, 47(3), 847A.

Huttenlocher, J. (1974). The origins of language comprehension. In R. L. Solso (Ed.), *Theories in Cognitive Psychology* (pp. 331-368). Potomac, Md: Erlbaum.

Ibrahim, M. H. (1993). Integrating grammatical structures with communicative practice through situationally based dialogues. *Occasional Papers in the Development of English Language Education*, 17, 81-106.

Idol, L. and Croll, V. (1987). Story mapping training as a means of improving reading comprehension. *Learning Disability Quarterly,* 10, 214-229.

Invernizzi, M., Abouzeid, M., and Gill, J. (1994). Using students' invented spellings as a guide for spelling instruction that emphasizes word study. *The Elementary School Journal*, 95(2), 155-167.

Ireson, J. and Hallam, S. (2002). The effects of ability grouping. In Andrew Pollard (Ed.). *Readings for Reflective Teaching* (pp.315-318). London: Continuum.

Irmscher, W. (1979). *Teaching Expository Writing*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Ironsmith, M. and Whitehurst, G. (1978). How children learn to listen: The effects of modeling feedback styles on children's performance in referential communication. *Developmental Psychology*, 14, 546-554.

Isaacs, M. (1996). Levels of phonemic awareness and their relationship to reading and spelling. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Texas at Austin.

Jacobs, G. (1987). First experiences with peer feedback on compositions: Student and teacher reaction. *System*, 15(3), 325-333.

Jacobs, G. and Hall, S. (1994). Implementing cooperative learning. *English Teaching Forum*, 22(4), 2-13.

Jenkins, J. and Dixon, R. (1983). Vocabulary learning. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 8, 237-260.

Jenkins, J., Larson, K., and Fleisher, L. (1983). Effects of error correction on word recognition and reading comprehension. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 6, 139-145.

Jenkins, J., Stein, M., and Wysocki, K. (1984). Learning vocabulary through reading. *American Educational Research Journal*, 21 (4), 767-787.

Jenkinson, E. (1988). Learning to write, writing to learn. *Phi Delta Kappan,* 69, 712-717.

Joe, A. (1998). What effects do text-based tasks promoting generation have on incidental vocabulary acquisition? *Applied Linguistics*, 19(3), 357-377.

Johnson, D. M. (1989). Enriching task contexts for second language writing: Power through interpersonal roles. In D. M. Johnson & D. H. Roen, (Eds.), *Richness in Writing: Empowering ESL Students* (pp. 39-54). New York: Longman.

Johnson, D., Johnson, R. (1994). *An Overview of Cooperative Learning*. Available at: http://www.cooplearn.org/pages/overviewpaper.html.

Johnson, D., Johnson, R., Holubec, E., and Roy, P. (1984). *Circles of Learning: Cooperation in the Classroom*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Jones, L. (1995). The effects of an eclectic approach versus a modified whole language approach on the reading and writing skills of first grade students. Unpublished Ph. D. Dissertation, University of Mississippi.

Juel, C. (1988). Learning to read and write: A longitudinal study of fifty-four children from first through fourth grade. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 80(4), 437-447.

Juel, C., Griffith, P. and Gough, P. (1986). Acquisition of literacy: A longitudinal study of children in first and second grade. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 78(4), 243-255.

Kamhi, A. and Catts, H. (1989). Language and reading convergences, divergences, and development. In A. Kamhi and H. Catts (Eds.), *Reading Disabilities: A Developmental Language Perspective* (pp. 1-34). Boston: College Hill Publication.

Kaminsky, S. and Powers, R. (1981). Remediation of handwriting difficulties. A practical approach. *Academic Therapy*, 17(1), 19-25.

Kane, R. (1983). A longitudinal analysis of primary children's written language in relation to reading comprehension. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Hofstra University.

Kathleen, A. (1993). *Learning and Teaching Style in Theory and Practice*. Second Edition. Columbia, CT: The Learner's Dimension.

Kaya, M. (2002). An exploration of expert reading teachers' beliefs and instructional practices related to children's literature and reading development. *DAI*, 63(7), 2841A.

Kelley, K. (1984). The effect of writing instruction on reading comprehension and story writing ability. *DAI*, 45(6), 1703A.

King, A. (1989). Verbal interaction and problem-solving with computer-assisted groups. *Journal of Educational Computing Research*, 5, 1-15.

Kitao, S. (1988). The contribution of schemata to the reading comprehension of east Asian readers of English as a second language. *DAI*, 49(5), 1131A.

Klavas, A. (1993). In Greensboro, North Carolina: Learning style program boosts achievement and test scores. *The Clearing House*, 67(3), 149-151.

Klein, J., Erchul, J., and Pridemore, D. (1994). Effects of individual versus cooperative learning and type of reward on performance and continuing motivation. *Educational Psychology*, 19, 24-32.

Klein, M. L. (1977). *Talk in the Language Arts Classroom*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Koch, A. (1993). A study of transfer efficiency in expository reading tasks using two methods of rule generation. *DAI*, 54(3), 795A.

Kohn, A. (1987). It's hard to get left out of a pair. *Psychology Today*, 21(10), 53-57.

Kowitz, J. and Carroll, D. (1990). The use of the mother tongue in the classroom—precept and practice. In Mona Abousenna (Ed.), *Proceedings of the Tenth National Symposium on English Language Teaching In Egypt* (pp. 39-54). Ain Shams University, Cairo: CDELT.

Krashen, S. D. (1984). Writing: Research, Theory and Applications. Torrance, CA: Laredo Publishing Co., Inc.

-------.(1989). We acquire vocabulary and spelling by reading: Additional evidence for the input hypothesis. *Modern Language Journal*, 73(4), 440-463.

-------.(1994). The input hypothesis and its rivals. In Nick. C. Ellis (Ed.), *Implicit and Explicit Learning of Languages* (pp. 45-77). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983). *The Natural Approach*. Oxford: Pergamon.

Kroll, B. (1993). Teaching writing is teaching reading: Training the new teacher of ESL composition. In J. G. Carson and I. Leki (Eds.), *Reading in the Composition Classroom: Second Language Perspectives* (pp. 61-81). Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.

Kunze, C. (1994). *Improving the Reading Comprehension Skills of Unmotivated Fifth Grade Students through Literature-Based Instruction*. Eric Document No. 369074.

Kwan, L. (1999*). A Tutor-Guided Learning Scheme in a Self-Access Center.* Available at: http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Lai-Tutor-Guided.html

LaBerge, D. and Samuels, S. (1974). Toward a theory of automatic information processing in reading. *Cognitive Psychology*, 6, 293-323.

Laflamme, J. (1997). The effect of multiple exposure vocabulary method and the target reading/writing strategy on test scores. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 40(5), 372-384.

Lakoff, R. (1982). Some of my favorite writers are literate: The mingling of oral and literate strategies in written communication. In D. Tannen (Ed.), *Spoken and Written*

Language: Exploring Orality and Literacy. Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Larsen, K. (1997). Blending whole language/phonics instruction and the development of first grade readers. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, Pacific Lutheran University.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (1986). *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

-------.(1991). Teaching grammar. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* (pp. 279-296). Second Edition. New York: Newbury House.

Larson, R. and Jones, J. (1984). Proficiency testing for the other language modalities. In T. Higgs (Ed.), *Teaching for Proficiency: The Organizing Principle* (pp. 133-138). Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Co.

Lapp, D. and Flood, J. (1992). *Teaching Reading to Every Child*. Third Edition. New York: Macmillian Publishing Company.

Leaman, R. E. (1993). Effects of direct instruction of story grammar on story writing and reading comprehension of elementary school learning disabled students. In Timothy V. Rasinski and Nancy D. Padak (Eds.), *Inquiries in Literacy Learning and Instruction* (pp. 15-24). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Lee, C. (1991). Korean high school seniors' oral and literate comprehension and production skills in English. *DAI*, 51(9), 3004A.

Lehman, C. (1979). Teaching and learning the craft of handwriting. *Visible Language*, 1, 5-15.

Lemons, R. and Moore, S. (1982). The effects of training in listening on the development of reading skills. *Reading Improvement*, 19, 212-261.

Lesgold, A. and Resnick, L. (1982). How reading disabilities develop: Perspectives from a longitudinal study. In J. P. Das, R. Mulcahy and A. E. Wall (Eds.), *Theory and Research in Learning Disability*. New York: Plenum.

Lesgold, A., Resnick, L., and Hammond, K. (1985). Learning to read: A longitudinal study of word skill development in two curricula. In G. Mackinnon and T. Waller (Eds.), *Reading Research: Advances in Theory and Practice, Vol. 4* (pp. 107-138). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Lester, C. (1993). A literature-based approach to reading. *DAI*, 32(4), 1107A

Leu, D. (1982). Differences between oral and written discourse and the acquisition of reading proficiency. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 14, 111-125.

Levesque, J. (1989). Facilitating learning by listening: A comparison of instructional methods. *DAI*, 50(5), 1201A.

Levine, A. and Reves, T. (1985). What can the foreign language teacher teach the mother tongue reader? *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 3 (1), 329-339.

Lewkowicz, N. (1980). Phonemic awareness training: What to teach and how to teach it. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 72, 686-700.

Liberman, I., Rubin, H., Duques, S., and Carlisle, J. (1985). Linguistic abilities and spelling proficiency in kindergartners and adult poor spellers. In D. Gray and J. Kavanagh (Eds.), *Biobehavioral Measures of Dyslexia* (pp. 163-176). Parkton, MD: York Press.

Lie, A. (1991). The effects of a training program for stimulating skills in word analysis in first grade children. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 6, 234-250.

Lightbown, P. and Spada, N. (1990). Focus on form and corrective feedback in communicative language teaching: Effects on second language learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 12, 429-446.

Limaye, M. (1983). Approaching punctuation as a system. *ABCA Bulletin*, 46(1), 28-33.

Long, M., Adams, L., McLean, M., and Castanos, F. (1976). Doing things with words–- verbal interaction in lockstep and small group classroom situations. In R. Crymes and J. Fanselow (Eds.), *On TESOL '76*. Washington, D.C.: TESOL.

Long, M. and Porter, P. (1985). Group work, interlanguage talk, and second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19(2), 207-228.

Long, R. and Bulgarella, L. (1985). Social interaction and the writing process. *Language Arts*, 62(2), 166-171.

Lopez, A. (1986). Teaching punctuation in primary grades: A comparison of two strategies. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, University of California, Los Angeles, CA.

Loshbaugh, M. (1993). The effects of whole language on the writing ability of first-grade children. *DAI*, 53(11), 3795A.

Lucas, T. F. (1988). Personal journal writing in an ESL writing class: Teaching, learning, and adapting to the genre conventions. *DAI*, 49(3), 420A.

Lund, R. (1990). A taxonomy for teaching second language listening. *Foreign Language Annals*, 23(2), 105-115.

--------.(1991). A comparison of second language listening and reading comprehension. *Modern Language Journal*, 75, 196-204.

Lundberg, I., Frost, J., and Peterson, O. (1988). Effectiveness of an extensive program for stimulating phonological awareness in pre-school children. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 23(3), 263-284.

Lundberg, I., Olofsson, A., and Wall, S. (1980). Reading and spelling skills in the first school years predicted from phonemic awareness skills in kindergarten. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 21, 159-173.

Lundsteen, S. (1979). *Listening: Its Impact on Reading and the Other Language Arts*. Urbana,IL: NCTE.

---------.(1989). *Language Arts: A Problem-Solving Approach*. New York: Harper and Row.

Mackay, D., Allport, A., Prinz, W., and Scheerer, E. (1987). Relationships and modules within language perception and production: An introduction. In A. Allport, D. Mackay, W. Prinz, and E. Scheerer (Eds.), *Language Perception and Production: Relationship between Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing* (pp. 1-15). London: Academic Press.

Madison, V. (1991). The effects of the literature-based language arts program on the reading achievement of SCE/at-risk students *DAI*, 52(4), 1275A.

Magnan, S. S. (1985). Teaching and testing proficiency in writing: Skills to transcend the second-language classroom. In Alice C. Omaggio (Ed.), *Proficiency, Curriculum, Articulation: The Ties That Bind* (pp. 109-196). USA: The Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Inc.

Maguire, G. (1992). The impact of a whole language program on the reading and writing development of grade two children. *MAI*, 30(1), 993.

Mancillas, P. (1986). Teaching punctuation skills in first grades: Natural language acquisition, beyond drill and practice. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, University of California, Los Angeles, CA.

Manning, M. (1988). Handwriting instruction. *Childhood Education*, 65, 112-114.

Markham, L. (1976). Influences of handwriting quality on teacher evaluation of written work. *American Educational Research Journal*, 13, 277-283.

Mason, J., Herman, P., and Au, K. (1991). Children's developing knowledge of words. In J. Flood, J. Jensen, D. Lapp and J. Squire (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching the English Language Arts* (pp. 721-731). New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Master, P. (1994). The effect of systematic instruction on learning the English article system. In T. Odlin, (Ed.), *Perspectives on Pedagogical Grammar*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mathes, P. and Fuchs, L. (1994). The efficacy of peer tutoring in reading for students with mild disabilities: A best-evidence synthesis. *School Psychology Review*, 23, 59-80.

Mazzie, C. A. (1987). An experimental investigation of the determinants of implications in spoken and written discourse. *Discourse Processes*, 10, 31-42.

McAfee, D. (1981). *Effect of Sentence Combining on Fifth Grade Reading and Writing Achievement*. ERIC Document No. 217 388.

McClelland, J. (1987). A case for interactionism in language processing. In Coltheart, M. (Ed.), *Psychology of Reading.* Hillsdale: Erlbaum.

McDaniel, M. and Pressley, M. (1986). Keyword and context instruction of new vocabulary meanings: Effects of text comprehension and memory. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 81(2), 204-213.

McDonough, J. and Shaw, C. (1993). *Materials and Methods in ELT: A Teacher's Guide*. Cambridge: Blackwell Publishers.

McGinnis, D. and Smith, D. (1982). *Analyzing and Treating Reading Problems*. New York: Macmillan.

McGreal, R. (1989). Coping with large classes. *English Teaching Forum*, 27(2), 17-19.

McKeown, M. G. (1985). The acquisition of word meaning from context by children of high and low ability. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 20, 482-496.

McLaughlin, B., Rossman, T., and McLeod, B. (1983). Second language learning: An information processing perspective. *Language Learning,* 33(2), 135-158.

McLaughlin, M. (1994). Whole language for academically underprepared college students: A rationale, description, and assessment. *DAI,* 54(11), 4018A.

McNally, C. (1994). *Learning Phonics in a Whole Language Classroom*. ERIC Document No. 376 440.

McNamara, T. (1996). *Measuring Second Language Performance*. London: Longman.

Mecartty, F. (1995). Lexical and grammatical knowledge in second language reading and listening. *DAI*, 55(9), 2814A.

Melendez, M. (1993). The effects of grammar instruction on learners' development of grammatical competence in a foreign language. *DAI*, 54(5), 1786A.

Mercer, M. (1992). A whole language versus skills based approach to pre-school education. *MAI*, 30(2), 191.

Miller, L. (1988). A study of the effects of teaching listening on reading comprehension of students in first and second grades. *MAI*, 27(4), 439.

Miller, M. (1986). Primary Portuguese students learn punctuation: Natural acquisition versus directed instruction. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, University of California, Los Angeles, CA.

Miller, S. and Smith, D. (1990). Relations among oral reading, silent reading and listening comprehension of students at different competency levels. *Reading Research and Instruction*, 29(2), 73-84.

Mills, S. S. (1990). A study of the relationship between the extensiveness of reading and the improvement of written composition of high school students. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of South Carolina.

Montgomery, C. and Eisenstein, M. (1985). Reality revisted: An experimental communicative in ESL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19, 317-334.

Moriarty, T. (1990). Using children's literature: How literature-based writing influences the development of phonological awareness. *DAI*, 52(2), 487A.

Moroishi, M. (1998). Explicit vs. implicit learning: The case of acquisition of the Japanese conjectural auxiliaries. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Georgetown University.

Morrison, F. (1984). Word decoding and rule-learning in normal and disabled readers. *Remedial and Special Education*, 5, 20-27.

-------.(1987). The nature of reading disability: Toward an integrative framework. In S. Ceci (Ed.), *Handbook of Cognitive, Social, Neuropsychological Aspects of Learning Disabilities* (pp. 33-62). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Morrow, L. (1996). *Motivating Reading and Writing in Diverse Classrooms: Social and Physical Contexts in a Literature-Based Program*. Eric Document No. 398543.

Murakawa, H. (1982). Teaching English pronunciation to Japanese adults. *DAI*, 42(7), 3045A.

Murray, S. (1993). The role of text structure in composing from sources. *DAI*, 53(12), 4258A.

Myers, M. (1987). The shared structure of oral and written language and the implications for teaching writing, reading, and literature. In James R. Squire (Ed.), *The Dynamics of Language Learning* (pp. 121-146). Urbana, IL: Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication.

Nagle, T. (1989). A Comparison of whole language and traditional methods of teaching writing in first grade. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, San Jose State University.

Nagy, W. and Anderson, R. (1984). How many words are there in printed school English. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 19, 303-330.

Nagy, W., Anderson, R., and Herman, P. (1987). Learning word meanings from context during normal reading. *American Educational Research Journal*, 24(2), 237-270.

Nagy, W., Herman, P., and Anderson, R. (1985a). Learning words from context. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 20(2), 233-253.

-------.(1985b). *Learning word meanings from context: How broadly generalizable?* Champaign, IL: University of Illinois, Center for the study of Reading.

Naiman, D. W. (1988). *Telecommunications and an Interactive Approach to Literacy in Disabled Students.* New York: New York University Press.

Nation, I. (1985). Opportunities for learning through the communication approach. In K. Bikram (Ed.), *Communicative Language Learning.* Singapore: Regional English Language center.

Nation, K. and Hulme, C. (1997). Phonemic segmentation, not onset-rime segmentation predicts early reading and spelling skill. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 32(2), 154-167.

Nazir, M. (1985). A suggested programme for developing the mechanical writing skills of the English language of the second year arts section. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, Assiut University, Egypt.

Neely, R. and Alm, D. (1993). Empowering students with styles. *The Principal*, 72(4), 32-35.

Negm, M. (1995). Speaking and writing as interdiscursive modes: Prolegomenon. *Occasional Papers in the Development of English Language Education,* 21, 55-84.

Neill, D. and Medina, N. (1989). Standardized testing: Harmful to educational health. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 70, 688-697.

Nemko, B. (1984). Context versus isolation: Another look at beginning readers. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 19(4), 461-467.

Neulieb, J. and Brosnahan, I. (1987). Teaching grammar to writers. *Journal of Basic Writing*, 6(2), 28-35.

Newman, J. (1985). Insights from recent reading and writing research and their implications for developing whole language curriculum. In Judith M. Newman (Ed.), *Whole Language: Theory into Practice* (pp. 7-36). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Newman, J. and Church, S. (1990). Commentary: Myths of whole language. *The Reading Teacher,* 44(1), 20-26.

Nord, J. (1980). Developing listening fluency before speaking: An alternate paradigm. *System,* 8(1), 1-22.

Norris, J. and Hoffman, P. (1993). *Whole Language Intervention for School-Age Children*. San Diego, California: Singular Publishing Group, Inc.

Nunan, D. (1989). ***Understanding Language Classrooms, A Guide for Teacher-Initiated Action.*** **New York: Prentice Hall.**

Nuwash, C. (1997). Reading and auding in secondary English as a second language students. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Texas at Austin.

Oakes, J. (1985). ***Keeping Track: How Schools Structure Inequality*****. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.**

Oller, J. (1979). ***Language Tests at Schools*****. London: Longman.**

Olofsson, A. and Lundberg, I. (1985). Can phonemic awareness be trained in kindergarten? ***Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*****, 24, 35-44.**

Olsen, R. W., and Kagan, S. (1992). About cooperative learning. In C. Kessler (Ed.), ***Cooperative Language Learning: A Resource Book*****. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.**

Omaggio, A. C. (1986). ***Teaching Language in Context: Proficiency-Oriented Instruction*****. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.**

Omanson, R., Beck, I., McKeown, M., and Pople, M. (1984). Listening versus reading comprehension: Some characteristics of beginning readers. Unpublished manuscript, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA.

O'Neil, J. (1992). Putting performance assessment to the test. ***Educational Leadership*****, 49(8), 14-19.**

Oppelt, S. (1991). ***Improving Reading Skills of Fourth Grade Students through a Literature-Based Reading Program*****. Eric Document No. 332164.**

Ormrod, J. A. (1986). Learning to spell: Three studies at the university level. ***Research in the Teaching of English,*** **20(2), 160-173.**

Otero, E. (1993). The effects of two instructional approaches on the reading comprehension achievement of ESL college students. ***DAI*****, 51(5), 1659A.**

Oxford, R. (1993). Research update on teaching L2 listening. ***System,*** **21(3), 205-211.**

Pachler, N. and Bond, J. (1999). Teaching and learning grammar. In Norbert Pachler (Ed.), ***Teaching Modern Foreign Languages at Advanced Levels*** **(pp. 93-115). London: Routledge.**

Page, W. (1974). The author and the reader in writing and reading. ***Research in the Teaching of English*****, 8(2), 170-183.**

Pahl, M. and Monson, R. (1992). In search of whole language: Transforming curriculum and instruction. ***Journal of Reading*****, 35(7), 518-524.**

Palincsar, A. S., and Brown, A. L. (1988). Teaching and practicing thinking skills to promote comprehension in the context of group problem solving. *Remedial and Special Education*, 9, 53-59.

Palincsar, A. S., Brown, A. L., and Martin, S. M., Stevens, D. D., and Gavelek, J. R. (1990). Collaborating with teachers in the interest of student collaboration. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 13(1), 41-53.

Palmer, H. (1965). *The Oral Method of Teaching Languages*. Japan: Heffer.

Pankratius, W. (1997). Preservice teachers construct a view on teaching and learning styles. *Action in Teacher Education*, 18(4), 68-76.

Parry, J. and Hornsby, D. (1988). *Write on: A Conference Approach to Writing*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Perfetti, C. (1985). *Reading Ability*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Perin, D. (1983). Phonemic segmentation and spelling. *British Journal of Psychology*, 74, 129-144.

Perry, M. (1980). A study of the effects of a literary models approach to composition on writing and reading. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Boston University.

Personke, C. and Yee, A (1971). *Comprehensive Spelling Instruction: Theory, Research, and Application.* Scranton: Intext Educational Publishers.

Peterson, P. (1991). A synthesis of methods for interactive listening. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* (pp. 106-122). Second Edition. Boston, Massachusetts: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.

Peyton, J. (1990). Beginning at the beginning: First grade ESL students learn to write. In A. Padilla, H. Fairchild, and M. Valadez (Eds.), *Bilingual Education: Issues and Strategies* (pp. 195-218). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Peyton, J. and Reed, L. (1990). *Dialogue Journal Writing with Nonnative Speakers*. Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc.

Pittelman, S. and Heimlich, J. (1991). Teaching vocabulary. In Bernard L. Hayes (Ed.), *Effective Strategies for Teaching Reading* (pp. 35-60). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Pontello, K. (1999). The effectiveness of a structured handwriting program. *DAI*, 39(1), 20A.

Popplewell, S. (1984). A comparative study of the reading and writing achievement of children, ages nine and ten, in Great Britain and The United States. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Ball State University.

Porter, P. A. (1986). How learners talk to each other: Input and interaction in task-centered discussions. In Richard R. Day (Ed.), *Talking to Learn: Conversation in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 200-222). Cambridge: Newbury House Publishers.

Porter, P. A., Goldstein, L. M., Leatherman, J., and Conrad, S. (1990). An ongoing dialogue: Learning logs for teacher preparation. In J. C. Richards, and D. Nunan (Eds.), *Second Language Teacher Education* (pp. 227-240). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Powers, D. (1985). *A Survey of Academic Demands Related to Listening Skills*. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

Pressley, M. (1988). *Reading Instruction That Works: The Case for Balanced Teaching*. New York: The Guilford Press.

Pressley, M. and Rankin, J. (1994). More about whole language methods of reading instruction for students at risk for early reading failure. *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice*, 9 (3), 157-168.

Rack, J., Snowling, M., and Olson, R. (1992). The nonword reading deficit in developmental dyslexia: A review. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 27, 28-53.

Rader, M. (1982). Context in written language: The case of imaginative fiction. In D. Tannen (Ed.), *Spoken and Written Language: Exploring Orality and Literacy* (pp. 1-16). Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Randall, M. (1996). What's in a word? Word recognition and reading: Bottom-up versus top-down processing. In Christine Zaher (Ed.), *Proceedings of the Second EFL Skills Conference "New Directions in Reading"* (pp. 77-83). The American University in Cairo: CACE.

Ratliff, J. (1987). Explicit instruction in story structure: Effects on preschoolers' listening comprehension. *DAI*, 47(11), 3927A.

Read, C. (1986). *Children's Creative Spelling*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Read, J. (2000). *Assessing Vocabulary*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Redeker, G. (1984). On differences between spoken and written language. *Discourse Processes*, 7, 43-55.

Reid, J. (1988). *The Process of Composition*. Second edition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

-------.(1993). Historical perspectives on writing and reading in the ESL classroom. In J. Carson and I. Leki (Eds.), *Reading in the Composition Classroom: Second Language Perspectives* (pp. 33-60). Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.

Rendon, M. (1995). Learner autonomy and cooperative learning. *English Teaching Forum*, 33 (4), 41-43.

Rescorla, L. (1980). Overextension in early language development. *Journal of Child Language*, 7, 321-335.

Reutzel, D. and Hollingsworth, P. (1988). Whole language and the practitioner. *Academic Therapy*, 23(4), 405-416.

Reutzel, R. and Cooter, R. (1990). Whole language: Comparative effects on first grade reading achievement. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 83(5), 252-257.

Rhodes, L. K. and Dudley-Marling, G. (1988). *Readers and Writers with a Difference*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Richards, J. (1983). Listening comprehension: Approach, design, procedure. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17(2), 219-240.

--------.(1990). *The Language Teaching Matrix*. New York: Cambridge University.

Richardson, L. (1995). A comparative study of freshmen college students' achievement and attitude toward reading when receiving a holistic, literature-based approach versus a basal, skill-based approach to teaching reading. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, South Carolina State University.

Rivers, W. (1981). *Teaching Foreign Language Skills*. Second Edition. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

--------.(1986). Comprehension and production in interactive language teaching. *Modern Language Journal*, 70, 1-7.

Robb, T., Ross, S., and Shortreed, I. (1986). Salience of feedback on error and its effects on EFL writing quality. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20, 83-95.

Roberts, R. (1991). *Writing Abilities of First Graders: Whole Language and Skills-Based Classrooms*. ERIC Document No. 341 981.

Robinson, J. (1980). Morphographic spelling: A summative evaluation of a morphographically based, direct instruction spelling program. *DAI*, 41(5), 1988A.

Robinson, T. (1986). Evaluating foreign students' compositions: The effects of rater background and of handwriting, spelling, and grammar. *DAI*, 46(10), 2951A.

Rosa, M. (1991). Relationships between cognitive styles and reading comprehension of narrative and expository prose of fourth-grade students in an urban school district. *DAI*, 52(4), 1275A.

Rose, K. (1982). *Teaching Language Arts to Children*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.

Rosenblatt, L. (1988). Writing and reading: The transactional theory. *Reader*, 20, 7-31.

Rosencrans, G. M. (1995). The effects of direct instruction within a whole language spelling program. *MAI,* 33(2), 315.

Rosenshine, B., and Guenther, J. (1992). Using scaffolds for teaching higher-level cognitive strategies. In J. W. Keefe, and H. J. Walberg (Eds.), *Teaching for Thinking* (pp. 35-48). Virginia: National Association of Secondary school Principals.

Rost, M. (1992). *Listening in Language Learning*. London: Longman.

Rowe, M. B. (1987). Using wait time to stimulate inquiry. In W. W. Wilen (Ed.), *Questions, Questioning Techniques, and Effective Teaching*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association.

Royer, J., Kulhavy, R., Lee, J., and Peterson, S. (1986). The sentence verification technique as a measure of listening and reading comprehension. *Educational and Psychological Research*, 6, 299-314.

Royer, J., Sinatra, G., and Schumer, H. (1990). Patterns of individual differences in the development of listening and reading comprehension. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 15, 183-196.

Rubin, A. (1980). A theoretical taxonomy of the differences between oral and written language. In R. Spiro, B. Bruce, and W. Brewer (Eds.), *Theoretical Issues in Reading Comprehension*. Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Rubin, D. (1982). *Diagnosis and Correction in Reading Instruction*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

--------.(1990). *Teaching Elementary Language Arts*. Fourth Edition. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

--------.(1993). *A Practical Approach to Teaching Reading*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Ruedy, L. (1983). Handwriting instruction: It can be part of the high school curriculum. *Academic Therapy*, 18(4), 421-429.

Sadow, S. M. (1987). Speaking and listening: Imaginative activities for the language class. In W. M. Rivers (Ed.), *Interactive Language Teaching* (pp. 33-43). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sasaki, M. (1996). *Second Language Proficiency, Foreign Language Aptitude, and Intelligence: Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis*. New York: Peter Lang.

Scarcella, R. and Oxford, R. (1992). *The Tapestry of Language Learning: The Individual in the Communicative Classroom*. Boston, Mass.: Heinle and Heinle Publishers, Inc.

Scardamalia, M. (1981). How children cope with the cognitive demands of writing. In C. Frederickson and J. Dominic (Eds.), *Writing: The Nature, Development and Teaching of Written Communication, Vol. 2* (pp. 81-104). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Schatz, E. and Baldwin, R. (1986). Context clues are unreliable predictors of word meanings. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 21(4), 439-453.

Schleppegrell, M. (1998). Grammar as resource: Writing a description. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 32(2), 182-211.

Schoonen, R., Vergeer, M., and Eiting, M. (1997). The assessment of writing ability: Expert readers versus lay readers. *Language Testing*, 14, 157-184.

Scott, V. M. (1989). An empirical study of explicit and implicit teaching strategies in French. *Modern Language Journal,* 73, 14-22.

-------.(1990). Explicit and implicit grammar teaching strategies: New empirical data. *French Review*, 63, 779-89.

Seaton, H. and Wielan, O. (1980). *The Effects of Listening/Reading Transfer on Four Measures of Reading Comprehension*. ERIC Document No. 194 884.

Semke, H. (1984). The effects of the red pen. *Foreign Language Annals*, 17, 195-202.

Shapiro, J. and Gunderson, L. (1988). A comparison of vocabulary generated by grade 1 students in whole language classrooms and basal reader vocabulary. *Reading Research and Instruction*, 27(2), 40-46.

Share, D., Jorm, A., Maclean, R., and Mathews, R. (1984). Sources of individual differences in reading acquisition. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 76, 466-477.

Share, D. and Stanovich, K. (1995). Cognitive processes in early reading development: Accommodating individual differences into a mode of acquisition. *Issues in Education: Contributions from Educational Psychology*, 1, 1-57.

Shearer, B. (1992). The long-term effects of whole language instruction on children's written composition. *DAI*, 53(6), 1855A.

Shefelbine, J. (1995). *Learning and Using Phonics in Beginning Reading*. New York: Scholastic, Inc.

Sherman, L. (1998). Seeking common ground. *Northwest Education,* 4(1), 2-11.

Shuy, R. (1981). A Holistic view of language. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 15, 101-111.

Siedow, M. (1973). Relationship between syntactic maturity in oral and written language and reading comprehension of materials of varying syntactic complexity. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Indiana University.

Sinatra, R. and Dowd, C. (1991). Using syntactic and semantic clues to learn vocabulary. *Journal of Reading,* 35(3), 224-229.

Singer, H. (1981). Instruction in reading acquisition. In O. Tzeng and H. Singer (Eds.), *Perception of Print* (pp. 291-312). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Singh, B. (1989). What the gap and how we bridge it. In R. Blake (Ed.), *Reading, Writing, and Interpreting Literature*. New York State University: New York State English Council.

Smith, F. (1982). *Writing and the Writer*. New Hampshire: Heinemann.

-------. (1992). Learning to read: The never-ending debate. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 74, 432-441.

-------. (1994). *Understanding Reading: A Psycholinguistic Analysis of Reading and Learning to Read*. Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Smith, K. (1997). Right left-left right problematic. In Christine Zaher (Ed.), *Proceedings of the Second EFL Skills Conference "New Directions in Reading"* (pp. 96-103). The American University in Cairo: CACE.

Smolak, L. (1982). Cognitive precursors of receptive vs. expressive language. *Journal of Child Language*, 9(1), 13-22.

Snyder, L., Bates, E., and Bretherton, I. (1981). Content and context in early lexical development. *Journal of Child Language*, 8, 565-582.

Sonnenschein, S. and Whitehurst, G. (1980). The development of communication: When a bad model makes a good teacher. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 3, 371-390.

Spada, N. (1987). Relationships between instructional differences and learning outcomes: A process-product study of communicative language teaching. *Applied Linguistics,* 8, 137-161.

Stahl, S. and Miller, P. (1989). Whole language and language experience approaches for beginning reading: A quantitative research synthesis. *Review of Educational Research*, 59(1), 87-116.

Stanovich, K. (1986). Matthew effects in reading: some consequences of individual differences in the acquisition of literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 21, 360-407.

-------.(1993). Does reading make you smarter? Literacy and the development of verbal intelligence. In H. Reese (Ed.), *Advances in Child Development and Behavior*, *Vol. 24* (pp. 133-180). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

-------.(1993-94). Romance and reality. *Reading Teacher*, 47 (4), 280-91.

Stanovich, K. and West, R. (1989). Exposure to print and orthographic processing. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 24, 402-433.

Starvish, M. (1985). In a classroom where kindergartners are required to write one story a week, the children are better speakers, earlier readers and, generally, more careful communicators. *Language Arts*, 62(3), 40-41.

Stasko, M. (1991). *Increasing Reading Comprehension and Vocabulary Retention Skills by Using the Whole Language Approach*. ERIC document No. 331 013.

Steffensen, M. S. (1988). The dialogue journal: A method for improving cross-cultural reading comprehension. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 5(1), 193-203.

Stelly, C. H. (1991). Effects of a whole language approach using authentic French texts on student comprehension and attitude. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Louisiana State University.

Stern, S.(1991). An integrated approach to literature in ESL/EFL. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* (pp. 328-346). Second Edition. New York: Newbury House.

Stice, C. and Bertrand, N. (1990). *Whole Language and the Emergent Literacy of at-Risk Children: A Two Year Comparative Study*. Nashville, TN: Tennessee State University, Nashville Center of Excellence.

Sticht, T. and James, J. (1984). Listening and reading. In P. D. Pearson (Ed.), *Handbook of Reading Research* (pp. 293-317). New York: Longman.

Stiles, R. (1986). Learning style preferences for design and their relationship to standardized test results. *DAI*, 46(9), 2551A.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass, and C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 235-253). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

--------.(1989). Manipulating and complementing content teaching to maximize second language learning. *TESL Canada Journal,* 6, 86-83.

Sweeney, F. (1993). Aspects of foreign language communicative competence in speaking and writing development: A comparison of discourse features in the production of beginning Spanish learners. *DAI*, 53(12), 4303A.

Swinton, S. and Powers, D. (1980). *Factor Analysis of the Test of English as a Foreign Language for Several Language Groups*. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

Tangel, D. and Blackman, B. (1992). Effect of phoneme awareness instruction on kindergarten children's invented spelling. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 24(2), 233-261.

Tannen, D. (1982a). Oral and literate strategies in spoken and written narratives. *Language*, 58, 1-12.

--------.(1982b).The oral/literate continuum in discourse. In D. Tannen (Ed.), *Spoken and Written Language: Exploring Orality and Literacy* (pp. 1-16). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Taylor, B. and Beach, R. (1984). The effects of text structure instruction on middle-grade students' comprehension and production of expository text. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 19(2), 134-146.

Taylor, D. (1981). The relationship between reading and writing. Unpublished EDSE, University of Mississippi.

Teale, W. (1988). Developmentally appropriate assessment of reading and writing in the early childhood classroom. *The Elementary School Journal*, 89(2), 172-183.

Temple, C. and Gillet, J. W. (1984). *Language Arts: Learning Processes and Teaching Practices*. Boston: Little Brown and Company Ltd.

Terrell, T. (1982). The natural approach to language teaching: An update. *Modern Language Journal*, 66, 121-132

Tierney, R. and Pearson, P. (1983). Toward a composing model of reading. *Language Arts*, 60, 568-580.

Tierney, R., Readence, J. E., and Dishner, E. K. (1995). *Reading Strategies and Practices: A Compendium*. Fourth Edition. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Topping, K. (1998). Paired learning in literacy. In Topping, K. and Ehly, S. (Eds.), *Peer-Assisted Learning* (pp. 87-104). Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Travis, P. (1983). A study of listening-reading scores of average and deficient readers. *DAI*, 11(2), 119A.

Treiman, R. (1993). *Beginning to Spell: A Study of First-Grade Children*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Treiman, R. and Baron, J. (1981). Segmental analysis ability: Development and relation to reading ability. In T. G. Waller and G. E. Mackinnon (Eds.), *Reading Research: Advances in Theory and Practice*, *Vol. 3.* New York: Academic Press.

--------.(1983). Phonemic-analysis training helps children benefit from spelling-sound rules. *Memory and Cognition*, 11, 382-389.

Truscott, J. (1996). The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes. *Language Learning*, 46(2), 327-369.

Tunmer, W. and Hoover, W. (1992). Cognitive and linguistic factors in learning to read. In P. Gough, L. C. Ehri, and R. Treiman (Eds.), *Reading Acquisition* (pp. 175-214). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum Associates.

Tunmer, W. and Nesdale, A. (1985). Phonemic Segmentation skill and beginning reading. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 77(4), 417-427.

Udall, A. J., and Daniels, J. E. (1991). *Creating Thoughtful Classrooms: Strategies to Promote Student Thinking*. Arizona: Zephyr Press.

Uhry, J. (1989). The effect of spelling instruction on the acquisition of beginning reading strategies. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Ur, P. (1984). *Teaching Listening Comprehension*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Vance, J. (1990). Developing comprehension and thinking in whole language classrooms. In Diane Stephens, Janet Vance, and Constance Weaver (Eds.), *Understanding Whole Language: From Principles to Practice* (pp. 168-181). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

van Lier, L. (1988).*The Classroom and the Language Learner*. London: Longman.

VanPatten, B. and Cadierno, T. (1993). Input processing and second language acquisition: A role for instruction. *Modern Language Journal,* 77, 45-57.

Varner, R. (1986). First grade monolingual in preparation. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, California State University, Los Angeles, CA.

Vellutino, F. (1991). Introduction to three studies on reading acquisition: Convergent findings on theoretical foundations of code-oriented versus whole language approaches to reading instruction. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 83, 437-443.

Vellutino, F. and Scanlon, D. (1987). Phonological coding, phonological awareness, and reading ability: Evidence from a longitudinal and experimental study. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 33(3), 321-363.

Vermette, P. (1998). *Making Cooperative Learning Work: Student Teams in K-12 Classrooms.* Upper Saddle, New Jersey: Merrill.

Wabby, A. (1995). Literature, language, culture: A dialogue! *Proceedings of the 15th National Symposium on English Language Teaching in Egypt* (pp. 153-158). Ain Shams University, Cairo: CDELT.

Walther, M. (1998). First-grade teachers blending phonics and whole language: Two case studies. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Northern Illinois University.

Walworth, M. (1990). Interactive teaching of reading: A model. In J. K. Peyton (Ed.), *Students and Teachers Writing Together: Perspectives on Journal Writing* (pp. 35-47). Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc.

Wang, Y. (1993). E-Mail Dialogue Journaling in an ESL Reading and Writing Classroom. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Oregon.

Warchauer, M., Shetzer, H., and Meloni, C. (2000). *Internet for English Teaching.* Virginia: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc.

Watanabe, Y. (1997). Input, intake and retention: Effects of increased learning of foreign language vocabulary. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition,* 19, 287-301.

Weaver, C.. (1980). *Psycholinguistics and Reading.* Cambridge, NM: Winthrop.

------. (1990). What whole language is, and why whole language. In Diane Stephens, Janet Vance, and Constance Weaver (Eds), *Understanding Whole Language: From Principles to Practice* (pp. 3-30). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. NH: Heinemann.

-------. (1994). Understanding and educating attention-deficit students: A systems-theory, whole language perspective. In Alan D. Flurkey and Richard J. Meyer (Eds.), *Under the Whole Language Umbrella: Many Cultures, Many Voices* (pp. 203-239). Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.

Webster, L. and Ammon, P. (1994). Linking written language to cognitive development: Reading, writing, and concrete operations. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 28(1), 89-109.

Weigle, S. (1994). Effects of training on raters of ESL composition: Quantitative and qualitative approaches. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles.

Weisenbach, E. (1989). An experimental study of the effects of direct instruction in comprehension strategies taught through listening upon reading comprehension of fourth grade students. *DAI*, 49(7), 1692A.

Wham, M. and Lenski, S. (1994). Dialogue journals as a vehicle for preservice teachers to experience the writing process. *Reading Horizons*, 35(1), 62-70.

White, L. (1991). Adverb placement in second language acquisition: Some effects of positive and negative evidence in the classroom. *Second Language Research*, 7, 133-161.

White, L., Spada, N., Lightbown, P., and Ranta, P. (1991). Input enhancement and L2 question formation. *Applied Linguistics*, 12, 416-432.

White, N. (1988). The effects of a simultaneous multi-sensory, alphapetic-phonic, direct instruction approach on the teaching of spelling. *DAI*, 48(8), 1975A.

Whitehurst, G. (1976). The development of communication: changes with age and modeling. *Child Development*, 47, 473-482.

Whitehurst, G. and Merkur, A. (1977). The development of communication modeling and contrast failure. *Child Development*, 48, 993-1001.

Wiggins, G. (1989). Teaching to the (authentic) test. *Educational Leadership*, 46(7), 41-47.

Wilde, S. (1988) Learning to spell and punctuate: A study of eight and nine year old children. *Language and Education,* 2(1), 35-59.

--------.(1992) *You kan red this! Spelling and punctuation for whole language classrooms*. New Hampshire: Heinemann.

Wilhoit, D. (1994). Enhancing oral skills: A practical and systematic approach. *English Language Teaching Forum*, 32 (4), 32-36.

Williams, J. (1980). Teaching decoding with an emphasis on phoneme analysis and phoneme blending. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 72, 1-15.

--------.(1985). The case for explicit decoding instruction. In J. Osborn, P. Wilson, and R. Anderson (Eds.), *Reading Education: Foundations for a Literate America* (pp. 205-213). Lexington, MA: Heath.

Wilson, M. (1998). *Skills-Based or Whole Language Reading Instruction? A Comparative Study in the Improvement of the Reading Comprehension of High School Students.* ERIC Documernt No. 422 562.

Winsor, P. and Pearson, P. (1992). *Children At-Risk: Their Phonemic Awareness Development in Holistic Instruction* (Tech. Rep. No 556). Urbana, IL.: Center for the Study of Reading.

Wipf, J. (1984). Strategies for teaching second language listening comprehension. *Foreign Language Annals*, 17 (4), 345-348.

Wollman-Bonilla, J. (1993). It's really special you get to think: Talking about literature, In B. Cullinan (Ed.), *Children's Voices: Talk in the Classroom* (pp. 47-56). Newark, Delaware: International Reading Associations.

Wood, R., Webster, L., Gullickson, A., and Walker, J. (1987). Comparing handwriting legibility with three teaching methods for sex and grade level. *Reading Improvement*, 24, 24-30.

Wysocki, K. and Jenkins, J. (1987). Deriving word meanings through morphological generalization. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 22(1), 66-81.

Yeung, S. (1993). A comparison of the effectiveness of explicit grammar instruction and experientially-oriented instruction in teaching the English article system to Chinese ESL students. *MAI*, 31(4), 1458.

Yoos, G. (1979). An identity of roles in writing and reading. *College Composition and Communication*, 30(3), 245-249.

Yorio, C. (1971). Some sources of reading problems in foreign language learners. *Language Learning*, 21(1), 107-115.

Zamel, V. (1983). The composing process of advanced ESL students: Six studies. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17(2), 165-187.

------. (1992). Writing one's way into reading. *TESOL Quarterly*, 26, 463-485.

Zientarski, D. P. and Pottorff, D. D. (1994). Reading aloud to low achieving secondary students. *Reading Horizons*, 35(1), 44-51.

Zuckermann, G. (1987). The impact of writing activities on the teaching of reading to students of English as a foreign language. *DAI*, 48(2), 326A.

Zutell, J. (1992). An integrated view of word knowledge: Correlational studies of the relationships among spelling, reading, and conceptual development. In Shane Templeton and Donald R. Bear (Eds.), *Development of Orthographic Knowledge and the Foundations of Literacy* (pp. 213-230). Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Zutell, J. and Rasinski, T. (1989). Reading and spelling connection in third and fifth grade students. *Reading Psychology*, 10(2), 137-156.

About the Author

Dr. Abdel Salam A. El-Koumy is a full professor of TEFL at Suez School of Education, Suez Canal University, Egypt. He is currently vice-dean for post-graduate studies and research. He has published numerous papers on the ERIC Web site at http://www.eric.ed.gov/ and four books on teaching and learning English as a foreign language. He presented two papers at the international TESOL Convention (1996, 2002) and six papers at the EFL Skills Conference held annually at

the American University in Cairo (1994, 1996, 1997, 2001, 2003, 2005). He received post-doctoral training at the University of Mississippi and California State University. His special interests include language performance assessment, whole language, learning strategies, learning styles, and learning processes. He can be reached by e-mail at: elkoumya@yahoo.com